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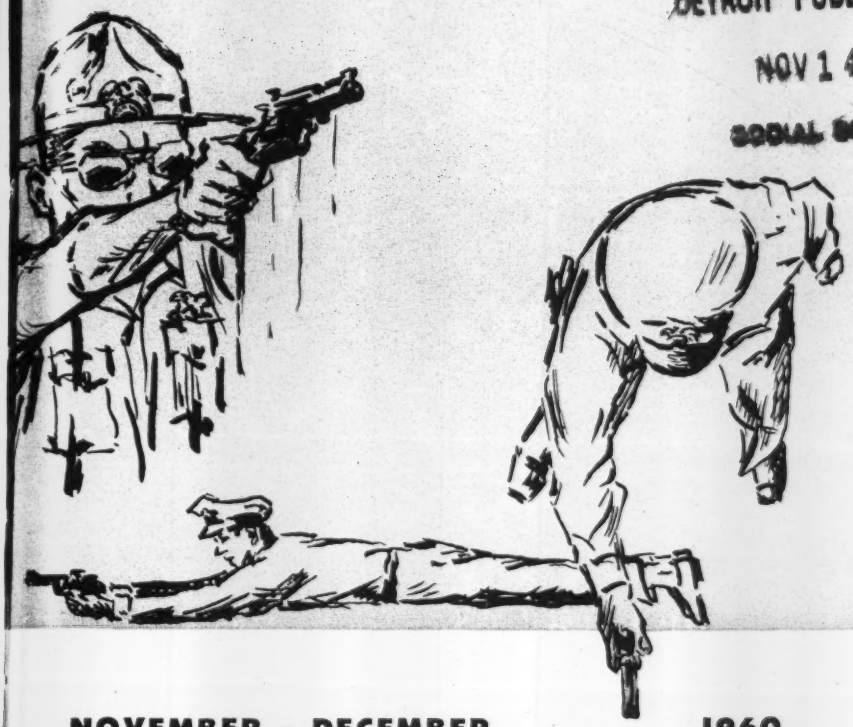

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★ *The Problems of Being a Police Officer*
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NOVEMBER - DECEMBER 1960

POLICE

THE JOURNAL COVERING THE PROFESSIONAL INTERESTS OF ALL LAW ENFORCEMENT PERSONNEL

IN THIS ISSUE

★ *Wire Tapping in England*
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★ *Recognizing and Collecting Evidence*
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★ *Problems of Marksmanship*
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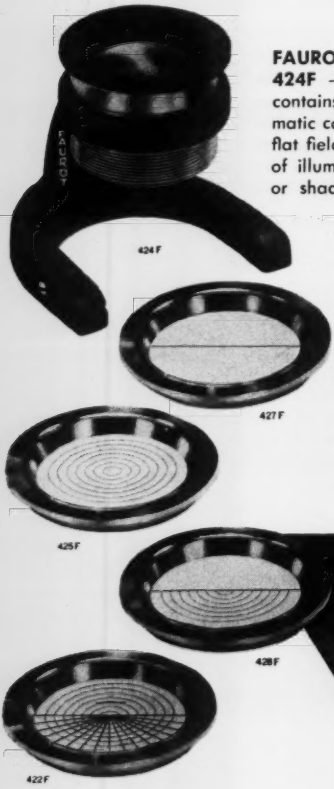

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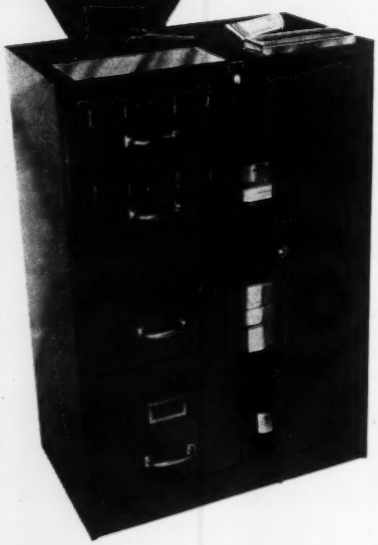

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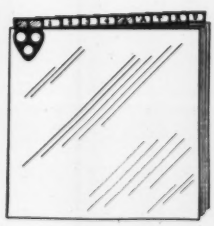

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The Journal Covering the Professional Interests of All Law Enforcement Personnel

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DECEMBER

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San Diego Establishes Police Cadet Program

By Patrick O'Reiley

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. O'Reiley was graduated from Indiana University in 1947. In 1949 he received an M.A. degree from the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago with a concentration in probation and parole work. After a few months as a Probation Officer for San Diego County, he joined the staff of the Medical Division of the Veterans Administration Regional Office in San Diego and served for five years as a Psychiatric Caseworker. This experience proved valuable when he became a staff Personnel Analyst for the San Diego City Civil Service Commission in 1954.*

In addition to other duties as an Associate Personnel Analyst, Mr. O'Reiley functions as Police Examiner for the City of San Diego and is responsible for the recruitment and selection of police personnel. In the course of these duties, he has authored several police aptitude and promotional tests and designed a unique, one-minute indoor strength and agility test for police and fireman candidates which has proved very effective. He is currently serving as a member of the Police Science Advisory Committee of San Diego Junior College which offers an Associate in Arts program in police science. One of Mr. O'Reiley's activities as Police Examiner was to develop the Police Cadet program described in the following article.

SINCE 1954, the author has been responsible for recruiting and selecting Police personnel for the City of San Diego. During this period, San Diego has enjoyed a relatively prosperous and continually expanding economy which has made for a difficult personnel recruiting market. Population growth has been at one of the highest rates in the country, and this has been compounded by sizeable annexations that have imposed sudden demands for extra Police personnel. High selection standards for San Diego Police Department personnel has further complicated the problem, inasmuch as the typical yield through recent years has been only 8% of applicants. As a result, police recruiting has been a chronic problem.

Not a new idea, we were vaguely aware of Police Cadet programs in other cities and several times we had thought about the possibility of establishing one in San Diego. However, again, we faced some special problems. We desired to advocate only a program that would pay its own way and not put a single extra dollar of burden upon an already tight Police Department budget. Years before, police officers had been removed from all positions which were essentially non-enforcement in nature. In our original thinking concerning how to effectively utilize cadets, we had tried to think of police officers whom we could replace. Each time we dropped the idea because we were unable to discover police officer positions that could be properly filled by cadets.

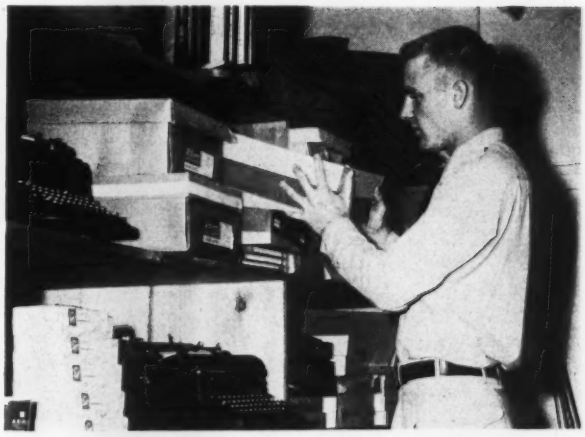
Finally, it occurred to us that instead of trying to replace police officers, there was no reason why we couldn't replace civilian clerks instead. Specifically, we have a "Junior Clerk" class of employment performing beginning level clerical work. It appeared that Police Cadet appointees could replace Junior Clerks and produce a full day's work for a day's pay.

With this in mind, casual, informal conversations were held with key Police Department officials. The response was a generally enthusiastic acceptance of the idea. Then, a more formal meeting was held with a Chief Officer, Training Officer, Departmental Administrative Assistant, and a representative of the Budget Office. This group agreed that the idea was worth a try, and more specific plans were formulated. It was agreed that we in Civil Service would make up a Class Specification, examination announcement, and do the recruiting; the Police Department Training Division would take care of the indoctrination of the Cadets and schedule a training program for them; and the Administrative Assistant would review the budget and make up a list of positions in which Cadets could be substituted for Junior Clerks.

A separate meeting was later held with representatives of the City Manager's staff and the Budget Office and they agreed to back the program upon assurance that it would not cost extra money. Subsequently, a prospectus on the plan was drawn up and the plan was presented to and approved by the City Civil Service Commission, who established a new class of employment called Police Cadet. The final stage in the establishment of the program was formal approval by the City Council. At this point, the plan encountered very close scrutiny and required a great deal of explanation and selling. The Council appeared to be chiefly concerned that the program might be seriously dis-

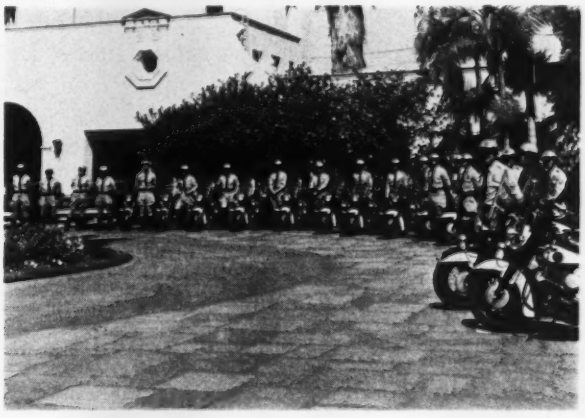
Address: Mr. Patrick O'Reiley, Civil Service Commission, Civic Center, San Diego 1, California.

Cadet Jon McDowell filing arrest records.



Cadet Larry Cushman at work in the department's property room.

San Diego Police Records Division where Cadets will replace some of the employees shown.

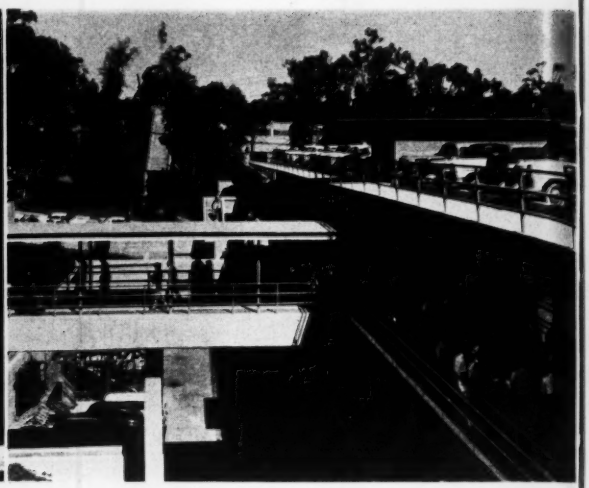


San Diego Police Department Motorcycle Officers. Scene is the inner courtyard of the San Diego Police Headquarters.

rupted by the military draft and were also very doubtful that the program would not add considerably to the Police budget. After careful consideration, the Council approved the plan in late March 1959.

The primary purpose of the program is to facilitate police recruiting by making it possible to employ selected seventeen through nineteen year old high school graduates of superior calibre before they are lost to other types of employment. With the present twenty-one year minimum age for employment as a police officer, the typical high school graduate must take interim employment and defer his entry into a police career for about three years. Being above average in general capabilities, the best potential police candidates often meet with considerable success in whatever endeavor they go into after leaving high school and are reluctant to leave that work when they become old enough to become police officers. Also, it was believed that the program would stimulate youthful interest in law enforcement careers and the general prestige of City employment would be improved. With a Cadet program furnishing an auxiliary supply of police candidates, it would enable police examiners to be more selective in their recruiting of the twenty-one through thirty age group.

Tentatively, it is planned to hold annual competitive examinations to produce eligible lists for appointments to Police Cadet positions. The first examination was arranged to coincide with the end of the school term in June, 1959. The recruiting of applicants was carried out in close cooperation with area high schools and junior colleges. Newspaper feature articles and pictures, and radio and television spot announcements and slides were used. Due to delays in getting the program approved, the recruiting period was shorter than desired. One hundred and twenty applications were received and seventy-one candidates subsequently took the written test. Thirty-two passed the written test. This group was then screened down to nineteen who passed the interview portion of the examination, which was conducted by Lieutenant Jack Baker of the San Diego Police Department and the author.



San Diego Junior College where Cadets will receive formal classroom training.

Although the number of applications received was somewhat disappointing, the quality of the candidates who passed all phases of the examination process and were placed on the eligible list was extremely good. Most of the boys were, or had been, outstanding scholars, athletes, or student leaders in high school. Also, one surprising result was that eighteen of the nineteen had had formal classroom training in typing while in school.

Except for the age requirement (seventeen through nineteen), cadets are required to meet the same mental and physical standards as required for regular Police Patrolman applicants. The same aptitude and strength and agility test as used for the regular police examination was employed.

A review of Junior Clerk positions in the Police Department in the spring of 1959 showed that there were thirteen such positions that could be filled by Police Cadets. In order to avoid creating any personal hardships by layoff, and in order to break in the program slowly and carefully, it was decided that the Cadets would be hired singly as Junior Clerk vacancies occurred by normal attrition from resignations and promotions. The Cadet salary was set at the same rate as that for Junior Clerk, which is currently $256 to $311 per month.

The first Cadet was appointed in August 1959, and, at the time of the preparation of this article there were six Cadets in the department after the program had been underway for six months. Three of them are in the Records Division; one works as a receptionist at a district station; one functions as a stock clerk in the departmental property room; and one does general clerical work for the Patrol Division. Cadet appointments are of a "limited" type. A Cadet has no tenure rights and may be released at any time if his work or training performance does not meet departmental standards. They are expected to produce at least the same amount and quality of work as the clerks they replace.

Cadets work a full forty-hour week at their departmental jobs. Their work is a form of training, inasmuch as they are learning departmental procedures and are becoming acquainted with key departmental personnel as a part of their jobs. It is planned that the Cadets will be rotated among various assignments at six-month intervals to become familiar with many aspects of departmental operations.

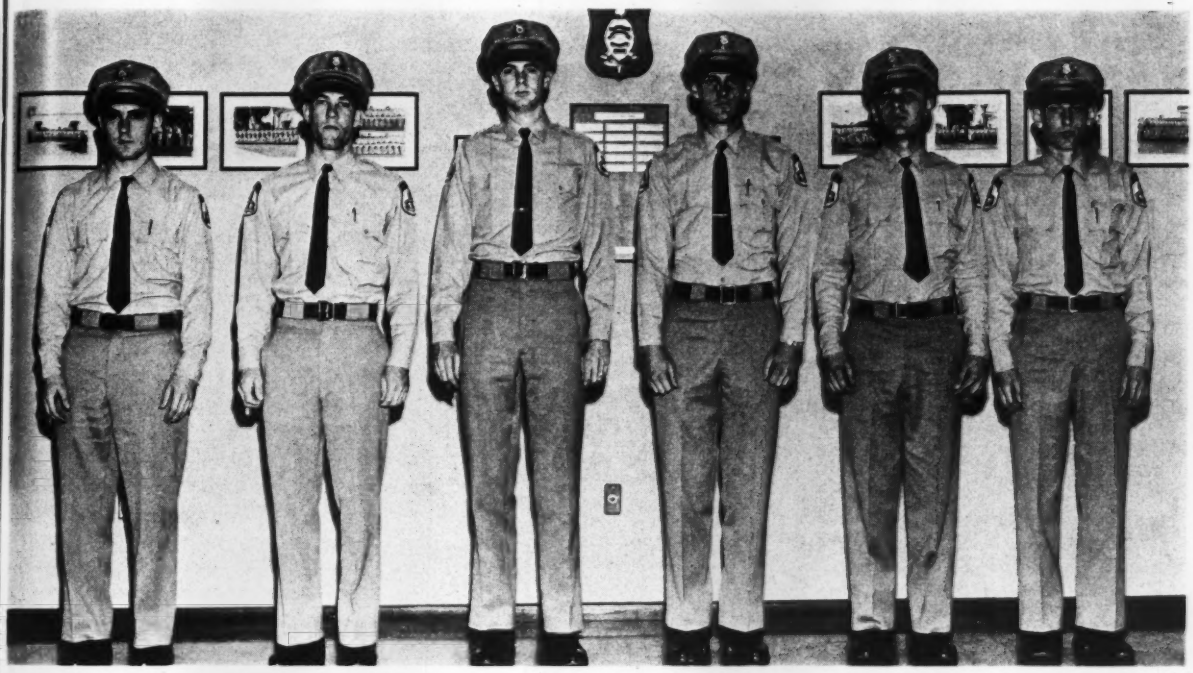
In addition, Cadets are required to carry six units per semester in Police Science or related subjects at San Diego Junior College. This training is to be accomplished on their own time before or after regular working hours.

Cadets are required to furnish and wear a uniform that is very similar to that worn by the regular departmental officers. The cost of the uniform is borne by the Cadet.

When they reach age twenty-one, Cadets are eligible to take a promotional examination for advancement to Police Patrolman status. A "promotional" eligible list takes priority over the "open" eligible list regularly used in filling Police Patrolman positions. Thus, all successful Cadets should be able to become Police Patrolman as soon as the y reach the necessary age.

Although six months of experience with the program is insufficient for drawing any definite conclusions, the program appears at this time to be highly successful. As has been the experience in other cities with similar programs, the cadets have turned out a greater quantity and higher quality of work than the clerks they replaced, probably due to greater career enthusiasm as well as a generally higher level of innate abilities. The only complaint heard from supervisors, if it may be called a complaint, is that the Cadets tend to exceed the bounds of their particular duties and take on more work than they should. Chief Elmer Jansen reports that he is highly pleased with the program thus far and intends to expand it as rapidly as possible to its fullest potential.

At this time, no Cadet has dropped or been dropped



Cadets assembled for uniform inspection. Left to right: Baucum, Marugg, Gore, Cushman, McDowell and Rice.

Cadets Larry Cushman, Jon McDowell, and Larry Gore receiving training materials from Lt. William Gore, Training Officer.

from the program, which is a better record than had been hoped for in initial planning. An original obstacle to setting up the program was the concern expressed in some management quarters that the military draft would have a disruptive effect. A review of our experience with other types of employees in this age group showed that draft calls have not been a problem. Further, it is believed that calls to military service, if they do occur, would not hamper the program. The Cadet would be able to return upon completion of his military duties, and the aim of attracting him to a police career would not be impaired. In fact, the drafting of Cadets would actually tend to enhance the output of the program by making it possible to get another Cadet into the system to replace the one who had been drafted. It must be remembered, that the primary reason for the program is recruitment, rather than providing training.

In summary, it is believed that the Cadet program will bring many benefits to the San Diego Police Department. The young men recruited appeared to be of beter quality than is ordinarily gained through general recruiting from the twenty-one through thirty age group. When they reach twenty-one and become Patrolmen, the Cadets require much less training than the usual recruit and should be able to perform much more effectively from the outset. The usual failure rate for Police Patrolman appointees is now about twenty per cent—a considerable loss in the form of training investment. Cadets will have been under observation for at least two years before becoming Patrolmen, and, after they finish the Cadet program, it is unlikely that they will drop out after becoming a Patrolman. If they do fail as a Cadet, the City will not have lost any investment because they will have produced a full day's work for each days pay received and their academic training will have been on their own time and not at City expense. Cadets will have the advantage of college level training in police science that few general recruits posses. This is fairly certain to raise the general professional standards of the force. ★★★

The Problems of Being a Police Officer

By Richard H. Blum

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author holds the Ph.D., degree from Stanford University with a major in Psychology and minors in Sociology and Criminology. He was an Associate Scientist at the Stanford Research Institute for three years and then became Research Director for the Medical Review and Advisory Board of the California Medical Association for three years. He has taught psychology and research design at San Francisco State College and at Stanford. He is currently Research Consultant to the Department of Welfare's Mental Health Services for San Mateo County in California. Dr. Blum has served as a consultant to the San Francisco and San Jose Police Departments and was a member of the staff in the Department of Psychiatry at San Quentin Penitentiary. During the Korean War, he was Chief Psychologist at an Army criminal rehabilitation center and stockade.*

For the past two years, he has spent considerable time in Europe studying various methods for the selection and training of police personnel; a report on this study will appear in a forthcoming issue of POLICE. The following article will ring many bells in the memory of police officers. In connection with this important subject matter, the reader may be interested in referring to a similar article by Lieut. Robert D. Dyas – THE MENTAL MIASMA – A POLICE PERSONNEL PROBLEM, which appeared in the July-August 1959 issue of the Journal.

THE police comprise one of the most important occupational groups in the nation. They are important because they keep our complex society together. They keep its citizens living, working, and prospering within the framework of civilized law and acceptable social conduct. Consequently it is to the advantage of every citizen that the importance of police work be recognized, and that the performance of police work be made as efficient, sensible, and satisfying as possible.

Unfortunately there exist many hazards and problems in police work which tend to make the work itself inefficient and troublesome. These same hazards make the job difficult for the individual policeman, and can create stresses and strains in his personal life. The cause and potential cure of these occupational problems becomes the concern of the psychologist who is involved in police work.

The following discussion will be limited to personal problems which arise from the job. I will not discuss any mental health problems that individual policeman, like any other human beings may have. I will consider only the special problems of conflict, tension, and insecurity which occur *because* a man is an officer.

Conflict is at the bottom of many emotional and mental upsets. Conflict occurs upon having two or more desires, neither of which is compatible with the other. For example: wanting to be honest and at the same time wanting to pretend to be sick in order not to perform some unpleasant task.

TYPICAL POLICE OFFICER CONFLICTS ARISING FROM THE JOB

Conflict of loyalties. Policemen want to be loyal to brother officers in order to win their friendship and approval. Like men in any other work group, friendship ties and loyalty help people to work together, and make a man confident that he can count on another's help should some danger or trouble arise. The policeman's problem is that conflict can arise when loyalty runs afoul of administrative directives, or the law itself.

Take for example, the case of a two man patrol car called to investigate a burglary in a liquor store. One man observes his partner take a fifth of whiskey off the shelf, and put it in his pocket. Here is the conflict, should the observing officer be loyal to his thieving partner by saying nothing about the matter? Should he apply differential standards of law enforcement by merely telling his partner, "You had better put that back, or you could get into trouble?" – or, should the observing officer enforce the law by turning his brother officer in? There is no happy solution. The conflict of loyalty versus lawfulness is always with the officer as he is faced with wanting trust, friendship and reliability, on the one hand while wanting to be lawful on the other hand. The conflict can lead to mental health problems in the policeman, shown by nervousness, sleeplessness, self-doubt, or guilt-feelings.

As another example of the loyalty problem, a police department had been getting bad publicity for sloppy procedures. An outside management expert was called in, who began to interview selected men in each division to find out what was wrong. One sergeant knew very well that his superior was a lazy and inefficient supervisor, often asleep at the switch. On the other hand, the supervisor was a nice guy who had been kind to the sergeant. The outside expert asked the sergeant about his supervision. What should he say? He was in conflict, for he wanted to be loyal to his supervisor, while at the same time the sergeant knew very well that the supervisor was doing a poor job,

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and was responsible for some of the mess the division was in. Concealment, or the truth, was the issue. The conflict caused the sergeant many a sleepless night, but his final decision was in favor of protecting the supervisor.

Loyalty conflict is never easily solved. One lieutenant I knew decided that he would always act on the idealistic principle of honesty before loyalty. Consequently, during a grand jury investigation, he testified against several fellow supervisors whom he knew were either inefficient or dishonest. He was commended by the grand jury and the District Attorney, but it was five years before any of his fellow officers would speak to him. The anger of his colleagues was harder to take than the previous conflict of loyalty versus truthfulness. On the other hand, a sergeant I knew made the opposite decision, he decided to shield three of his men whom he knew to be drinking on duty. Loyalty came first. One of these drinking officers later wrecked a police car, seriously injuring a child in a cross-walk. Investigation revealed that the officer had been driving while intoxicated. The sergeant knew he was responsible indirectly, and became very depressed, for his conscience bothered him for not having recommended suspension of the drinking man.

Solution to these conflicts of loyalties can come only if an entire department commits itself to a principle. One man alone cannot eliminate the conflict of loyalty versus truthfulness just by resolving that he will be honest, or by being willing to withstand the anger of his fellow officers. However, if the entire police department increases its feeling of being a profession, expands its code of operating ethics to say that everyone is not only expected to put truthfulness ahead of loyalty, but will not be criticized once he does so, then the conflict can be reduced. This can happen when everyone in a department decides that they want to be proud of their profession and so instill in each other a rigorous code which does put principle above loyalty.

The problems of being a police officer intermingle with its pleasures, including on occasion, the supreme faith and confidence displayed by a youngster on the beat. . . . Photo courtesy of W. C. Beall, Washington Daily News.

Conflict Coming from Temptation—Police officers, especially in larger cities, are probably more often subject to painful temptation than any other profession. The temptation, usually in the form of money or stock in trade of vice, can hardly help but appeal. One side of the conflict is the very human desire for money, gifts, or other material gains or pleasures of the flesh. The other side of the conflict is the voice of conscience which says the officer should be law-abiding. The conflict is even more difficult when the police officer is frequently exposed to citizens whom he knows are crooked, but whom he watches prosper and succeed on the basis of their racketeering, high-level thieving, or what-have-you. The more the officer is aware that crime does pay, the more he learns that justice is a fickle lady who sometimes rewards the worst, and punishes the best, the harder it is to resist temptation. Thus, the policeman himself can be tempted to seek success by the dishonesty which he sees others have so successfully employed.

The high cost of living and the officer's fixed salary also contribute to the desire of some officers to "live it up." The situation is made even worse when a police department is

itself corrupt. Usually the big cities are the worst offenders in this regard. When the policeman is aware that his own fellow officers are getting ahead by being dishonest, then it is difficult to resist temptation. It becomes nearly impossible to do so when, as in some large cities, the honest policeman is punished by his own superiors for too strict enforcement of the law, while the dishonest officer is given the choice assignments as part of a department's organized corruption. The conflict still exists if the officer does participate in the corruption, for by giving in to temptation, he does not eliminate his guilty conscience or his fear of eventually being called to account for his actions.

The solution to the problem of temptation lies only partly within the individual officer's strength of character and honest will power. Much of the solution lies within the community, through the character of its citizens and the honesty of its political leaders. The individual policeman's temptation is fairly easily eliminated when the citizens of the community are not themselves criminal, do not continually tempt the police, and elect politicians who insist on honesty in the departments. If the citizens of the community will insist on honesty, and the majority do not offer temptation or condone corruption, then the police officer's conflict is much reduced.

Conflict over Fear Versus Courage—An elemental conflict arises whenever individuals are faced with danger which they should not flee. Police, more often than ordinary citizens, have the conflict of facing danger bravely, versus finding less courageous but far more comfortable safety. A case of such a conflict occurred when a foot patrolman came upon an armed robber, just as the robber was running from a grocery store. The running robber opened fire; the officer started pursuit, returning fire. He was sorely tempted to run slowly, for the policeman was a large target at close range, (he weighed about 210 lbs.). The officer knew that if he ran slowly the robber would escape, thusly the officer would face less risk. Even though he wanted to slow down because of his fear, he was so intent on the pursuit that he did not. For his trouble he was wounded, but also wounded the felon.

This conflict of fear versus duty, or fear versus courage cannot be solved. However, it can be made somewhat less acute by an admission of fear, or by not having to pretend that the fear is not there. Good police training, which teaches the officer how to reduce actual risk to himself, will reduce the conflict; administrative procedures can also be worked out to provide maximum protection to the working officer by providing him with good equipment, assigning two man patrols to high risk areas, and so forth.

Conflict over Use of Force—This is a less frequent conflict, it occurs when a person has been raised to believe that violence is wrong, but then a police officer must use force in his work. Some policemen feel a reluctance to employ force because of their belief in its being wrong, consequently they can be in conflict over the reluctance versus the need to use force if they are to perform their job, or even to survive.

As one example you are told not to manhandle crazy people, but to bring them to the hospital with gentle understanding. On the other hand the psychotic person may be quite dangerous, and you know very well that you will have to use force to subdue him. When you bring the bruised patient into the psychiatric ward you get a stony fish-eyed glance from the nurse, who, observing the bruised patient, makes you feel like you were brutal. You end up feeling guilty about how you subdued the patient, even though there seemed to be no choice.

As another example, take the troubles the Army had during the Korean and World Wars, where up to 50% of the men on the line did not fire their weapons during a fire fight. They had been taught not to kill, they didn't want to draw fire, and they were afraid. As a result, they couldn't shoot. For many soldiers there was a dreadful emotional conflict over the use of force.

The same conflict can be seen in policemen, as for example, when an officer finds himself in a shooting situation for the first time. One policeman of whom I knew, had been on the force for seven years but had never been called upon to fire his weapon. One day while on foot patrol he came upon a holdup trio. They fired at him and he raised his gun to return the fire. His trigger finger was frozen, and he could not shoot. The holdup trio escaped and the officer engaged in some serious soul searching about whether or not he could ever shoot to kill.

While the moral conflict may not be solved, proper police training can help. It can help by doing what the Army now does, using human-like dummies instead of bulls-eyes as targets in pistol and rifle practice. In the case of psychiatric patients, training can be given in exactly how best to quiet a disturbed person without using excess force or violence. Part of the training problem is to give the policeman enough training that he feels confident about his own safety with violent people. Chances are that the more confident the officer feels, the more secure he is by virtue of his training, the less likely he is to use either excess force, or to fail to use as much force as the situation realistically requires.

The reverse of the reluctance to use force is an unusual, but very serious problem. It is the use of the policeman's uniform as a mask for brutality and violence. Some few individuals are only too willing to use violence, even when it is not called for in the performance of duty. They will entice citizens into argument, will lure juveniles into a fight, then will handle the situation in a brutal fashion. These men can give an entire department a bad reputation. Any conflict they have over force is resolved in favor of force, without using proper self-control.

Conflict over Human Misery and Evil. One of the most unpleasant parts of the policeman's job is that he is forced to deal with human pain, misery, and evil. At the scene of an accident, he must face death and

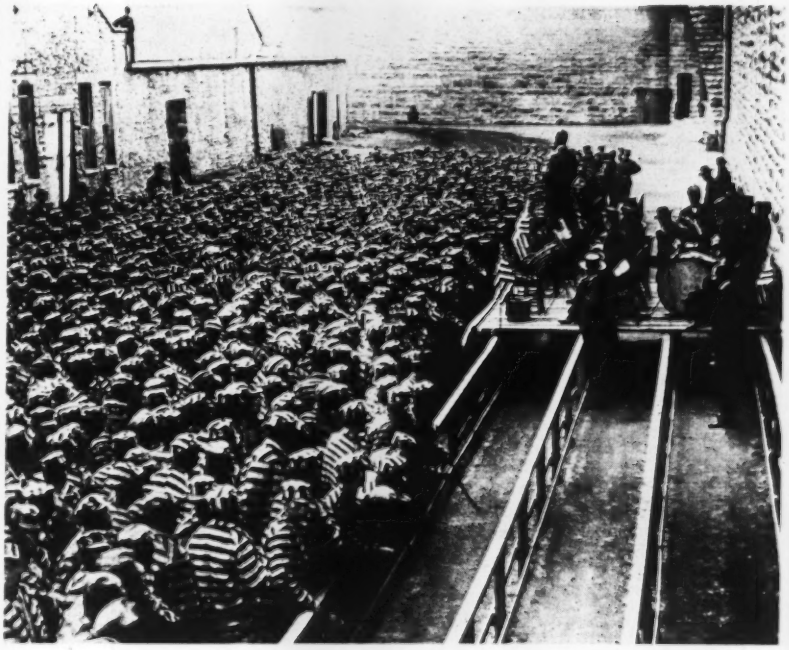
gruesome injury without giving in to his own inclinations to get sick or run away. On a neighbor's call, he may enter a home to find a little child terribly beaten by a drunken father. The policeman must make the arrest without indulging his urge to personally punish the vicious child-beater. In such cases the policeman's first human reaction is an emotional one; to be sickened by gruesome injury, to want to run from a mangled body, to want to assault the person who has killed or injured the child, to want to shoot the killer who has shot a brother officer down in cold blood.

The problem for the policeman is that unlike other human beings he cannot allow his real emotions to be expressed; he cannot show what he feels when faced with misery or evil. Instead the requirements of his job and personal pride require that he maintain control of himself and of others, that he act with calm efficiency to help the injured, protect the public safety, or arrest a felon.

What usually happens is that the police officer learns ways of controlling himself, or of defending against his very human emotional reactions. He "gets used to" horror by paying less attention to it, he "shuts it out of his mind," by not allowing himself to think about what he has just seen, or he becomes "hard-boiled," encasing himself in a kind of emotional armour. But no matter what he does, the policeman does not escape the fact that daily he is faced with human tragedy, which he can do little to prevent or alleviate. However much the police officer may want to prevent human misery, he is powerless to do so. It is one of the greatest emotional burdens of police work. As long as policemen must face the emergencies of horror, there is no real solution. The most common partial solution is to become somewhat "hard-boiled." In doing so, however, the policeman must also try to be sure that he does not loose his inner human tenderness and sensitivity. ★★★

EDITOR'S NOTE: The second in this important series of two articles will appear in the next issue of POLICE.

THEN



AND NOW!

Upper photo shows a holiday recreation period during the early 1930's with most of the Joliet State Penitentiary prisoners massed in a small courtyard.

Compare with the lower photo showing inmates enjoying a baseball game between a visiting team and the 1959 Joliet Penitentiary team.

Notice the difference in the appearance of the buildings and clothing of the prisoners. . . . Photos courtesy of Joseph Ragen, Warden, Statesville Penitentiary, Joliet, Illinois.

The Role of Dust, Dirt and Debris in Criminal Investigation

By Leland V. Jones

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Lieutenant Jones retired from the Los Angeles Police Department after twenty eight years of service with that organization and now holds the rank of Assistant Professor of Police Science at Los Angeles State College, where he teaches criminalistics. He graduated from Weber Academy, Ogden, Utah, in 1915 and attended Utah State University. His academic background includes extensive work at the University of California at Los Angeles and the University of Southern California, where he majored in chemistry. In addition, in 1948, he attended the six weeks, eight hours per day course in Nuclear Physics and Radiological Safety given at Treasure Island by the Navy.*

He became associated with the Los Angeles Police Department in 1929, serving six and one-half years in the Traffic Division and then twenty one years in the Crime Laboratory. He commanded the Scientific Investigation Division for a period of five years, serving as a criminalist on all types of criminal cases. He has testified in exess of 2,500 times during this twenty one year period in the courts of Los Angeles County and other counties of the state.

He was an instructor of Criminalistics at Los Angeles City College three years, and for eleven years served as an instructor of Criminalistics at the Civic Center Division of the School of Public Administration, U.S.C., and two years in the same capacity at Los Angeles State College. In 1959, he taught a five unit course in Criminalistics at the University of Hawaii. Lieutenant Jones is the author of SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATION AND PHYSICAL EVIDENCE (Charles C Thomas) and was a contributor to Vols. I and II of the LOS ANGELES POLICE DAILY TRAINING BULLETINS, released by the same publisher.

DUST, dirt, and debris is generally referred to as "trace evidence." It consists of minute particles of matter, either microscopic or macroscopic in character, found adhering to clothing, upholstery, window sills, floors, carpets, beds, in trouser cuffs or pockets, on bullets, or from any other source where its mere presence endows it with evidential value.

Trace evidence may be classified as falling into one of three groups of matter: animal origin, vegetable origin, or inorganic origin.

Below is a list of some of the particles of matter and the classifications into which they fall. This list, though not complete, indicates some particles which may be of evidential value in a case.

I. Vegetable Origin.
1. Leaves
2. Pollen
3. Tobacco
4. Textile fibers
5. Seeds
6. Starches
7. Sugars
8. Paper
9. Wood fibers
10. Flower petals
11. Fungus
12. Vegetable oils

II. Animal Origin.
1. Hair
2. Feathers
3. Animal fats
4. Scales
5. Skin tissue
6. Gelatins
7. Bone
8. Blood
9. Animal organisms
10. Feces
11. Insects or portions thereof
12. Body tissue
13. Silk fibers
14. Spider webs
15. Semen stains

III. Inorganic Origin.
1. Brick dust
2. Soil, dirt
3. Paint fragments
4. Fragments of metal
5. Glass particles
6. Nylon fibers
7. Lead from pencils
8. Ink stains
9. Sand, quartz, etc.
10. Ceramic particles
11. Asbestos
12. Plaster
13. Glass fibers

There are two sources: (1) trace evidence left at the scene, and (2) that was carried away by the perpetrator. The intrinsic value of trace evidence depends upon how nearly it falls into one of the following categories:

I. Matter, otherwise common and widespread, which has some individuality or characteristic.

Example: Leaves, found in the trouser cuffs of a suspect, had minute specks of green paint on them. The burglarized house recently had been spray-painted with green paint. Although these leaves were common to the neighborhood, they had a unique characteristic.

II. Matter is found that is uncommon or sparsely distributed.

Example: Particles of charred lath were found adhering to the clothes of a burglar suspected of having burglarized a drugstore. Entrance had been made through an attic in which there had been a fire at some previous date.

III. Matter, even though common, is found in unexpected places.

Example: Minute metal turnings of a copper alloy were found in the trouser cuffs of a drug clerk suspected of having broken open a safe in a certain foundry. If the suspect had been employed in a foundry the evidence would have had far less value, or it may have had no value whatsoever.

IV. Where a number of individual pieces of matter, although singly of low evidential value, all point to the same conclusion.

Example: The following debris was found adhering to the clothes of a man suspected of having raped a child: parts of insects, feces of mice, three different

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kinds of feathers, four types of seed, two different colors of dog hair, and parts of three different kinds of leaves. Particles of each category were found on the floor of an abandoned shack where the attack took place.

Trace evidence may be compared chemically, microscopically, spectrographically, or through the use of other scientific equipment. Occasionally this comparison may be done with ease, while at other times the expert will be required to expend considerable effort in order to come up with an answer.

Microscopes of various types probably are used to a greater extent than are any other type of analytical instruments. They have one great advantage in that the comparison can generally be photographed (frequently in color) and these photographs can then be presented in court. Again one picture is worth a thousand words.

Weed seeds, pollen, leaves, flower petals, etc., may not only be identified botanically but their degree of maturity have been noted, and this degree of maturity may be peculiar to some specific location, thus adding value to the evidence. It may be noted that on a single vacant lot the degree of maturity of the weeds may vary because of richness of the soil at some specific location, or the amount of water they may have received, or simply because the seeds in one location had germinated sooner than at some other locality.

Paint may be analyzed spectrographically. It may also consist of a number of layers of different colors and thicknesses. Even though paint may contain a number of major components, the impurities it contains are of greater interest to the spectrographer, as no two separate batches of paint, even though the component parts are carefully measured, will have the same impurities to the same extent. One problem handled by the author was to compare paint from the toes of the shoes of a burglary suspect with paint from the side of a building where entrance had been made. Each sample contained, as an impurity, strontium, to such a degree that, when burned in the spectograph, the room had a red glow similar to a red flare. This amount of strontium in paint is unusual.

Most of the trace evidence which falls under the classification of "inorganic" may be identified or compared spectographically if the sample is of sufficient size. Sufficient size may still be very small as compared to other evidence. A piece of glass the size of the lead broken from the end of a pencil is sufficient.

The ability of trace evidence to tenaciously adhere to objects is often quite surprising to the investigator. For instance, red wool fibers were found adhering to the front bumper of a car four days after a hit-and-run accident. Static electricity held them in place, even though the car had been driven many miles. It is not uncommon for weed seeds or leaves to cling to clothing, as frequently they are covered with pubescent hairs that hook into the threads of the fabric. This is especially true with marihuana debris. Minute fragments of marihuana leaves may

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be found in the pockets of clothing even though the pockets were previously turned inside out and shaken.

Leaf debris in clothing which has been subjected to a cleaning process will lose most of its coloring matter. If the debris is green, even though the clothing was recently cleaned, it indicates that the debris was introduced after the cleaning process. As trace evidence is generally of a microscopic nature, or at least minute, the correct handling of contaminated objects is of great importance. Clothes should be placed carefully in a large piece of clean wrapping paper and wrapped in such a way that debris, if present on the garment, will not be lost.

A tank type vacuum cleaner may be used to remove particles for examination. Often it is necessary to visit the crime scene more than once. Examination of the debris may uncover particles of potential evidence such as paint, glass, etc., not found in the composite samples from the scene. If that is the case, a thorough recheck should be made. In one case handled by the author, five different colors of paint were found in the debris removed from the clothing of the suspect that did not appear in the original samples from a cocktail bar where a burglary had occurred. A subsequent examination of the premises disclosed that the burglar had entered an attic in which several pin ball machines were stored, and had torn one of these machines apart. The five pieces of paint from the clothing were found to match the paint from this machine. No one had thought it necessary to examine the attic, as it "contained nothing of value."

It may be important to point out some specific places to look for trace evidence, and to suggest what may be found.

1. Minute pieces of stone from the roof of a building may be found imbedded in heel and sole of suspect's shoe.

2. Fibers, pubic hair, blood, semen, and skin tissue may be found under the fingernails of a suspect. His nails should be clipped off carefully, preserving all debris adhering to them, and the clippings from each hand

packaged separately. Small glass vials are excellent for this purpose. It may even be important to package each fingernail separately if, for example, the party is suspected of fondling a child. In one case handled by the author, the suspect confessed and stated that he had torn the vagina of a baby, using the middle finger of the left hand. Skin tissue, squamous epithelium cells, and blood were found in the debris from that finger. The other fingers were negative, thus corroborating his confession.

3. At times it is important to check the hair and scalp of a suspect for foreign debris. Sugar, starch, brick dust, metal turnings, plaster, paint, weed seeds, parts of leaves, and fragments of glass are some of the types of foreign matter which have been removed from the hair of suspects. In many cases they have had evidential value.

4. Where rape in an auto is suspected, the upholstery should be examined carefully for pubic and head hair, for fibers from various articles of clothing worn by the parties involved, also for seminal stains and blood.

In a fur burglary case, mink and silver fox hair were found on the clothes of one of a number of suspects, and thus the one individual was pinpointed.

As noted previously, trace evidence is minute, and is generally microscopic in character. For this reason it is frequently overlooked or minimized by the investigator. One should always anticipate the possibility of such evidence being present and should handle all articles accordingly.

It may be of value to cite a few cases and to list the trace evidence found in connection with each.

1. *Murder Case*
   Botannical debris consisting of minute parts of leaves from an asparagus type fern were found in the clothing and shoes of the suspect, thus connecting him with the case.
2. *Burglary*
   A broken tip of lead found on a window sill of a burglarized home matched mechanically with the end of the lead of a lead pencil found in the pocket of a suspect. The lead pencil had been used to open the screen.
3. *Rape*
   Seeds taken from an attack scene, from the seat of the defendant's car, and from the coat and hair of the victim, were the same type of seeds, about one mm. in size.
4. *Murder of Child*
   Seeds, seed pods, leaves, and flower petals having the same degree of maturity as those found near the body of a child, were taken from the clothing of the suspect.
5. *Hit-and-Run*
   Trace amounts of breakfast food (two types), sugar, soap powder, and rice were found in the radiator grill of a car driven by the suspect. Packages containing these substances were being carried by the victim at the time of impact.
6. *Murder*
   A pocket knife found at the scene had tobacco, sand, Marihuana, fibers, particles of red paint, and sugar crystals in the blade orifice. The same trace substances were found in the right trouser pocket of the suspect.
7. Trace evidence on the nose of a bullet was of the greatest importance in establishing the facts in a shooting case. A man and wife were separated and she paid a visit to him in his bedroom. He was nude at the time, while she was wearing a nylon knit dress. According to her statement a controversy arose, the husband jumped from bed and, while standing in the doorway, fired one shot into her body. He then shot himself in the abdomen. The bullet that supposedly had passed through the woman struck the bottom of a closet door and was found on the floor of the bedroom, while the one thought to have passed through the husband struck the plaster above the door at the end of the hall, then fell to the floor. The expert was not called into the case until nearly a week had passed, too late to establish the presence of powder residue on the nude man; there was none on the woman's clothing. However, the peculiar aspect of the case was the fact that the bullet which passed through the woman came out much higher than where it went in, while the one which passed through the man came out much lower than where it entered. The man refused to talk. An examination of the bullet found in the bedroom disclosed a reproduction of the pattern of the nylon dress, thus verifying the woman's statement.

It is generally important for the detective to obtain a statement from the suspect to the effect that the clothing he is wearing belongs to him and not to someone else. Ownership of a piece of clothing may frequently be established by accusing the suspect of having stolen it. This puts him on the defensive, and he will generally insist that it is his, and that he purchased it at a specific store; all of this is probably true, but if damaging trace evidence is later found on the clothes, it forestalls any attempt to deny ownership in court.

It is easy to see that trace evidence can be of utmost importance to a case, and with this in mind the investigator should handle clothing, shoes, or other potential carriers with great care. The adhering debris may be far more valuable as evidence than the article itself.

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★★★

Training in the Evaluation of Police Personnel

By Allen P. Bristow

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author's professional experience has included service with the Corps of Military Police, the San Fernando Police Department and the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department where he held the rank of Sergeant. Professor Bristow recently accepted a position on the faculty of the Department of Police Science and Administration at Los Angeles State College. He holds the Associate of Arts degree in Police Science, B. A., in Sociology and M. S., in Public Administration with Law Enforcement as the area of concentration. He is presently completing the requirements for the Doctor of Public Administration degree at the University of Southern California.*

Prof. Bristow received the John M. Pfiffner Research Award for his 1957 Master's Thesis, POLICE DECISION MAKING, *which was selected for publication by the Donner Foundation and is now being used as a text in Police Management at the University of Southern California. A revised edition of this thesis will be published by Charles C Thomas, Publisher, in 1961. The author has also written a text,* FIELD INTERROGATION, *recently released by the same publisher.*

This is the first in a series of articles dealing with police personnel rating procedure, a problem that besets police administrators and supervisors, and one that is of important concern to the rated—the men in the ranks.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Objectives. Many authorities in the field of performance evaluation feel that the training of supervisors in the techniques of rating is more important than any other factor to the success or failure of an evaluation program. Increasing numbers of law enforcement agencies are becoming conscious of the importance of performance rating and have instituted various programs of evaluation.

The purpose of this study was to survey the major law enforcement agencies in the United States and its possessions to determine the nature, scope, and extent of training provided supervisors in the techniques of performance rating.

Research Design. In May, 1957, George Beck while gathering material for his Master's Thesis at the University of Southern California, surveyed the 252 municipal police departments in the United States serving populations of 50,000 or more to determine the general status of performance rating.[1] Reponse to his study indicated that 89 municipal police departments utilized some type of performance rating. It was decided that a re-survey of the entire population (232) would have as a result no marked increase in returns, and for this reason only the 89 departments that indicated use of performance rating were included in this survey.

The 144 county sheriff's departments and county police departments which serve un-incorporated populations of 50,000 or more were selected for survey, as were the 48 state police and highway patrols. It was found that 19 special police districts existed which were responsible for law enforcement in similar population areas. Typical of these special district police agencies are the Chicago Park District Police, Port of New York Authority Police, and the Department of the Interior Indian Police.

This study reflects the response of 126 of the 443 law enforcement agencies which serve the indicated population areas. Agencies not using performance evaluation or agencies not training supervisors in rating probably tended not to reply, which would indicate that the results of the study may be more inclusive than the percentage (40%) of returns might indicate.

EVALUATION OF RESPONSE

Evaluation by Type of Agency. Table I indicates the percentage of agencies providing training. It will be noted that the percentage for state police and highway patrol departments considerably exceeds the other agencies surveyed. This situation may be caused by the fact that most states employ a large number of persons and utilize a central personnel unit which sponsors the performance evaluation program and provides training in rating. The high percentage may, on the other hand, be caused by the more advanced professional attainment of the state police agencies, due in part to their selectivity in recruitment and promotion.

Geographical Evaluation. In order to permit the best future correlation of the information obtained in this study, the number of agencies which train supervisors in performance rating is presented by the geographical divisions established for uniform reporting by the Federal Bureau of Investigation. These divisions, as represented in Table II, were designated by this agency in an attempt to introduce some geographical homogeny in evaluating uniform crime reports and statistics.

[1] George N. Beck: *A Preliminary Study of Performance Rating Systems in Use by Municipal Police Agencies in Cities Over 50,000 in Population* (published Master's thesis, The Donner Foundation. The University of Southern California, Los Angeles, 1958).

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TABLE I

PERCENTAGE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES WHICH PROVIDE TRAINING IN PERFORMANCE RATING *

Type of Agency	*Number of Agencies Serving Populations of 50,000 or More*	*Percentage of Agencies Providing Training in Rating*	*Number of Agencies Surveyed*	*Percentage of Returns*
County Sheriff's and County Police Departments	144	5% of the 144	144	19%
State Police and Highway Patrol Departments	48	58% of the 48	48	75%
Municipal Police Departments	232	22% of the 232	89	65%
Special District Police Departments	19	15% of the 19	19	26%
TOTALS	443	20% of the 443	300	40% of the 300

* Law Enforcement Agencies serving populations of 50 000 or more in the United States and its Possessions.

The Pacific Division and the East North Central Division show a considerably higher percentage of agencies which train raters than do the other divisions. Several theories for this distribution may be considered, foremost among which is the cultural lag of the New England, Middle Atlantic, and South Atlantic Divisions. State, city, and county government in these divisions are much older and may tend to be ultra-conservative in adopting new administrative techniques. Other theories which may have merit include the possibility that the greatest recent industrial development has taken place in the Pacific and East North Central Divisions. It is a generally accepted fact that management techniques which are found to be successful in private enterprise tend to find their way into the field of public administration. Comment must also be made on the large number of colleges and universities in these two divisions which have established a curriculum in the field of police administration, and their role in introducing new management techniques.

EVALUATION OF TRAINING

Methods of Training. Almost all of the responding agencies indicate the combined use of several methods of training. Table III presents these methods and compares their use by type of agency. The distribution of written instruction to the rater is indicated to be the most popular method of instruction by each type of agency.

Oral group instruction ranks second in popularity with each type of agency. By this type of instruction is meant the informal group oral lecture as might be presented to all supervisors in a particular unit or on a particular shift as contrasted with organized in-service training classes which would indicate a formal presentation to a larger group of supervisors, possibly representing all units of the department.

Objectives of Training. Combinations of the objectives listed in Table IV were indicated by all responding agencies. The most mentioned objective by all agencies was the uniform definition of traits on the evaluation form. The least mentioned objective was development of skills in the post-rating oral interview, which is surprising when it is considered by many authorities that the post-rating interview is the most important phase of the evaluation procedure. More favorable to note, however, was the indication that the explanation of the purpose of rating was ranked equally with the determination of rating standards as an objective by all agencies.

Source of Instructors. The survey indicated an overwhelming use of agency personnel as instructors in performance rating. The use of civil service or personnel bureau staff ranked next in order, and many agencies indicated the combined use of these instructors with agency personnel. As indicated in Table V, the use of expert or professional instructors and consultants from colleges, universities, or private organizations was almost non-existent.

Determination of Reliability. Very few of the agencies reported an attempt to determine the reliability of their ratings, and the majority that do make such an attempt indicate that it is a mere administrative review. Table VI contains a summary of the methods used to examine the reliability of ratings, and indicates that only a few agencies attempt any statistical determination. An attempt to adjust ratings by examination of rater tendency is reported by only one agency, the Baltimore Police Department, where an elaborate IBM system has been developed.

Indicated Further Research. The responding agencies contributed 26 departmental procedure manuals

TABLE II.
GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES
WHICH PROVIDE TRAINING IN PERFORMANCE RATING

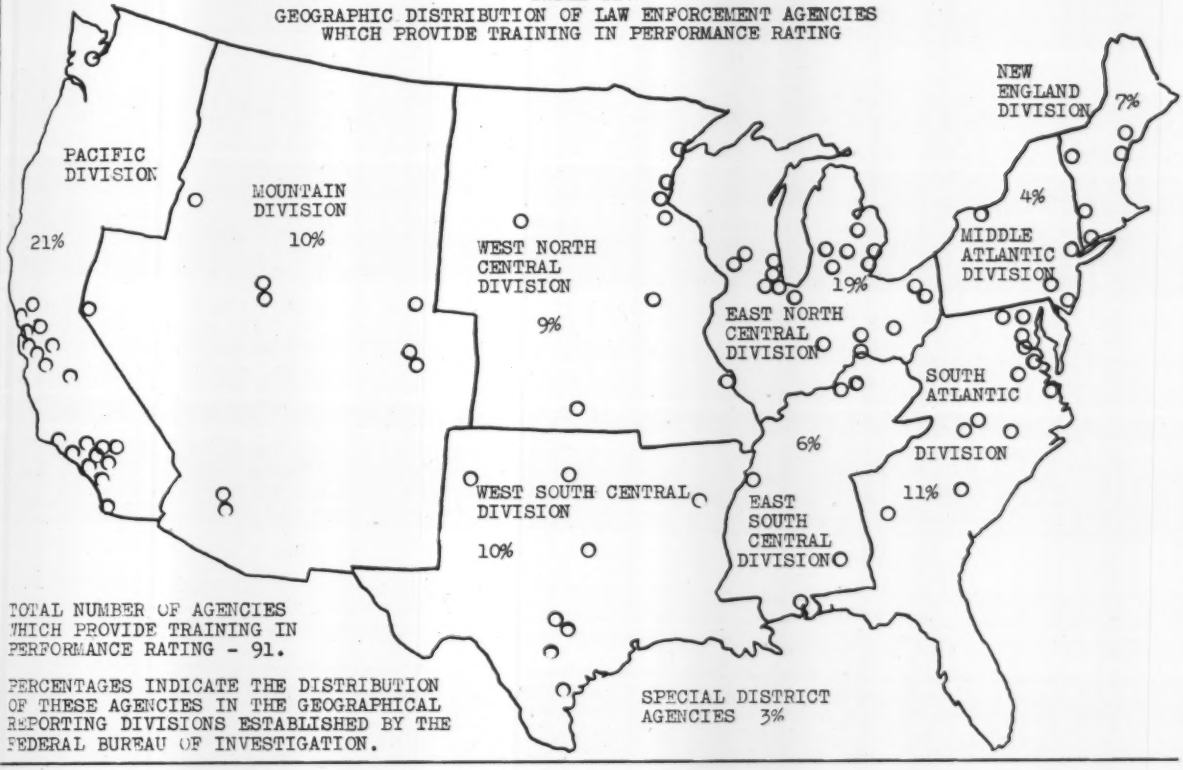

TABLE III

METHODS OF TRAINING PERFORMANCE RATERS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES SERVING POPULATIONS OF 50,000 OR MORE *

Type of Agency	*Number of Agencies Providing Training*	*Number Using Distribution of Printed Instructions*	*Number Using Group Oral Instruction*	*Number Using Oral Individual Instruction*	*Number Using Organized In-Service Training Class in Rating*
County Sheriff's and County Police Departments	8	2	2	1	2
State Police and Highway Patrol Departments	28	18	17	3	8
Municipal Police Departments	52	37	28	11	11
Special District Police Departments	3	1	1	0	1
TOTALS	91	58	48	15	22

* In The United States and It's Possessions. Many of the agencies indicate combined use of these methods.

on police performance rating. Further insight regarding methods and techniques in both training and rating theory may be obtained by evaluation and comparison of these manuals.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the information gathered it is apparent that an unusually large number of major law enforcement agencies have no established training program for performance raters. Enforcement agencies at the state level tend to lead all other types of agencies, both in the establishment of performance rating systems as well as in the training of raters.

Two geographical areas in the United States seem to exceed the others in the percentage of agencies which provide rater training. In each case one state is outstanding in its division; California in the Pacific Division and Michigan in the East North Central Division.

TABLE IV

OBJECTIVES OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCY TRAINING IN PERFORMANCE RATING FOR SUPERVISORS *

Type of Agency	*Number of Agencies Providing Training*	*Number Stressing Uniform Definition of Traits on Rating Form*	*Number Stressing Development of Skills in the Post-Rating Interview*	*Number Stressing Determination of Rating Standards*	*Number Stressing Explanation of Purposes of Rating*
County Sheriff's and County Police Departments	8	5	0	5	6
State Police and Highway Patrol Departments	28	20	6	19	22
Municipal Police Departments	52	40	12	32	31
Special District Police Departments	3	3	0	2	2
TOTALS	91	68	18	58	61

* In the United States and it's Possessions. Many agencies indicate combinations of the above objectives.

TABLE V

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTORS IN POLICE PERFORMANCE RATING UTILIZED BY LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES *

Type of Agency	*Number of Agencies Providing Training*	*Number Utilizing Own Agency Personnel as Instructors*	*Number Utilizing Civil Service Personnel as Instructors*	*Number Utilizing Personnel from Colleges, etc. as Instructors*	*Number Utilizing Personnel from Private Agencies as Instructors*
County Sheriff's and County Police Departments	8	7	1	0	0
State Police and Highway Patrol Departments	28	26	6	4	0
Municipal Police Departments	52	38	25	0	2
Special District Police Departments	3	3	0	0	1
TOTALS	91	74	32	4	3

* In the United States and its Possessions. Many agencies indicate combinations of the above sources.

TABLE VI

METHODS USED BY LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES TO DETERMINE RELIABILITY OF PERFORMANCE RATINGS *

Type of Agency	*Number of Agencies Providing Training*	*Review by Administrative Officers*	*Comparison to Past Ratings by Others*	*Comparison to Work-Units Completed*	*Comparison to "Buddy" or Peer Ratings*	*Comparison to Number of Appeals*	*Comparison to Normal Curve of Probability*	*Statistical Development of "Rater Error"*
County Sheriff's and County Police Departments	8	2	1	1	0	0	0	0
State Police and Highway Patrol Departments	28	7	1	2	1	1	1	0
Municipal Police Departments	52	10	5	1	0	0	1	1
Special District Police Departments	3	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
TOTALS	91	19	7	5	1	2	2	1

*In the United States and it's Possessions. No agencies indicated combined use of any of the above methods.

The French Commissaire of Police in the Mid-Nineteenth Century

By Howard C. Payne

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of two intriguing articles concerning* THE FRENCH COMMISSAIRES OF POLICE. *The first article appeared in the preceding issue of POLICE.*

OVERALL, it would seem that the Second Empire, often criticized as a "police state" dictatorship, aspired to qualities in its police that were far more humane and restrained than those of twentieth century dictatorships. In any case, the ideal *commissaire* must have been hard to find because of the high standards he was supposed to meet. In nineteenth-century France (as perhaps in twentieth-century America) probably few achieved the ideal.

There were neither police training schools nor formal training for administrators generally. *Commissaires* won their posts by individual application, influence, and appointment by the prefect. After August 1854, the prefects chose their men from a national list of candidates maintained by the Ministry of Interior.[31] In a major expansion of personnel during 1852-1853 the policy was to favor ex-non-commissioned officers of *gendarmerie,* on the grounds that they were most likely to be of "excellent morality, absolutely devoted [to the government], strictly honest, intelligent, energetic, poised, and with a background worthy of the people's confidence."[32] Next in line were ex-mayors, municipal administrators, and local judicial functionaries. New *commissaires* were rarely stationed in their native regions or in places where they had personal connections. The qualification most stressed was "a devotion, not equivocal but absolute, to the present government and to the principles that have legitimized it."[33] Of 1,720 provincial *commissaires* in 1860, eight hundred thirty-one came from the army or *gendarmerie,* seven hundred from lower administrative posts, and one hundred eighty-nine from neither military nor administrative backgrounds, including twenty-four secondary school teachers.[34] Taking the *département* of Bouches-du-Rhône (Marseille is its main city) in 1857 as an example, among thirty-six *commissaires* we find sixteen with military backgrounds, fourteen from minor administrative posts (including one ex-mayor), one former elementary teacher, and a businessman. One had managed a nursery-garden in Corsica, having become a *commissaire* by the personal influence of a brother-Corsican, Piétri, then Prefect of Paris Police. The average age of these *commissaires* was forty-nine; their ages ranged between twenty-six and seventy. Only twenty were married.[35] With due respect to these men's backgrounds, one cannot believe they would all have those exceptional qualities demanded in the professional manuals.

There was in fact much criticism of the *commissaires* by the general public and other administrators. One reason may have been their relatively low pay. Until 1855 their salary was regulated by laws of 1801 to 1813. Inevitably the result was "regrettable inadequacies" that often forced *commissaires'* living standards "well below the most ordinary needs of life," according to the Minister of Interior in 1855, who deplored this obstacle to effective police.[36] (It may be noted that this problem has been no monoply of the French police!) Legal annual salaries before 1852 ranged from about $450 plus $150 for office maintenance in the largest cities, down to the total of $250 for both salary and office in towns of from five to ten thousand population. The situation was even worse in smaller towns. Many cities had found extra-legal ways to increase their *commissaires'* pay, though leaving it still below the level of affluence.[37] In 1855 an imperial reform substantially improved the situation by establishing five pay-grades, ranging from $1,000—$200 in the largest cities down to $400—$60 in the lowest class. Only fifty-five *commissaires* were eligible for the top salary, while 1,256 officers fell into the lowest category.[38] So our *commissaire* did not attain the life of luxury during the Second Empire. Moreover, the 1850's were inflationary years, adding to the hardships of lesser administrative employees generally.[39] One can pointedly compare the *commissaire's* income with that of the prefects ($5,000 to $10,000) or the $12,500 enjoyed by the Paris Prefect of Police.[40] Though the "principal link between government and people," the French *commissaire* was coddled by neither.

Even twice their salary probably would not have produced men who in real life were the paragons of character and virtuosity ascribed by "doctrine" to the

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ideal *commissaire*. Mere mortals after all, the Second Empire's *commissaires* were targets of spirited criticism from both the public and their administrative superiors.

Public attitudes varied. To political enemies of the dictatorship, all police officers became symbols of tyranny and the *commissaire* an especially invidious one, by virtue of his important functions. The institution was attacked repeatedly by the parliamentary opposition during the 1860's. Occasionally the attacks even reached the largely-controlled press. "We do not like the police," thundered a journalist in 1865 as he advised the commissaires: "not so much zeal, less spying, not so much pressure . . . Give us more conciliation! . . . We never saw a cantonal *commissaire* able to understand clearly what was going on around him."[41] Others, political supporters of the Empire, criticized the *commissaires* for not showing enough zeal in political police,[42] though at the same time approving the institution and demanding an increase in their use.[43] Still others, while approving the work of the *commissaires*, objected on financial grounds to any expansion of the service.[44] Irate taxpayers abounded in the Second Empire, too.

In administrators' eyes the *commissaires* were often found wanting for a variety of reasons. Some thought the *commissariat* system adequate; some did not. Their criticisms fell into two categories: those aimed at the institution itself, and those directed against individual police officers. Judiciary police officials—the public prosecutors—were perhaps the most critical, although ministers, prefects, and even some *commissaires* themselves joined in the critique.

It was often said that the *commissaire* was left in an ambiguous position because of his multipartite role, with mayors, prosecutors, and prefects pulling him in three directions at once. This allegedly lead to "embarrassments and wranglings that always hinder spontaneity and liberty of action . . . and cause the loss of precious time." Especially was this thought to be true of the *commissaire's* relations with mayors and municipal police, where local factionalism and narrow viewpoints obstructed his prime duty of political police.[45] It was widely felt that the mayors were apt to be politically indifferent or latently hostile to the regime, or that "the capacity—and I can even go so far as to say the morality—of these functionaries still leaves much to be desired."[46] Conflicts with the *gendarmerie*,[47] authorities of the short-lived Ministry of Police in 1852-1853,[48] and judiciary police,[49] also grew out of the *commissaire's* complex situation. Other criticisms charged that the government had failed to provide enough *commissaires* for adequate police coverage of the 2,850 *cantons*, some of which had no *commissaire* at all. One critic cited the case of a city in the *département* of Vienne, where only one *commissaire* and two policemen had surveillance over 20,000 people and six nearby rural *communes*. Moreover, in the several *cantons* of the *arrondissement* there were no *commissaires* at all, the sole police being thirty-two village guards whose average pay was under $88.50 per year.[50] A strange situation in a so-called "police state"!

Criticisms of individual *commissaires* were more common. Many seem to have fallen far below the ideal. Men who were primarily chosen for their unquestioning loyalty to the Empire were often castigated by superiors for "excessive zeal" in political police. The Minister of Interior himself in 1853 accused the *commissaires* of lacking tact and prudence. "Unfortunately," he complained, "all do not seem to have formed a proper conception of their mission and, do not understand that the police should protect citizens without harrassing them."[51] A prefect's report of 1854 amounted to a summary of typical complaints:

> Our . . . *commissaires* of police do not all live up to the requirements of their important mission. Many sin by their profound ignorance of the basic elements of their duties. Some lack the dignity demanded by their magistracy. Some leave much to be desired in temperance and morality. This corps needs to be purged.[52]

A few *commissaires* were even more self-critical. One such, though writing on the eve of the Second Empire, vehemently painted a broad canvas of faults that likewise summarized typical complaints found in administrative correspondence from 1852 to 1870. Asserting that "the police should have an iron hand, but this hand should be gloved," he concluded that the glove was often tattered and the iron sometime ill-tempered. He denounced the "intemperate and brutal" *commissaire* along with his opposite, "indolent and almost ridiculous, betrayed by his weakness of behavior and inactivity." Too many, he said, lacked proper training and remained uninterested in improving themselves, merely following the uninspiring example of their equally indifferent predecessors. The result was a "thick-headed police, unintelligent, often culpable," that brought discredit upon the government represented by such officers. "People will not draw the fine distinction," he believed, "between law and morality as such, and the behavior of administrators themselves." What will people think of their government, he asked rhetorically, when it is too often represented by *commissaries* who try to hide their incompetence behind arrogance and pride, or who behave frivolously, like "superannuated charlatans," or "gadabout dandies trying to draw the besotted attention of provincial boobs"? He found equally deplorable the *commissaires* "whose sole distinction is fashionable dress, affected manners and speech, and passing most of their time in cafés thereby neglecting their work." This disgruntled *commissaire* ended his report by blaming the deficiencies of so many colleagues upon inadequate pay, "which makes their positions precarious and their dispositions vicious," forcing the administration to take its *commissaires* wherever they could be found.[53]

Fortunately, not all *commissaires* were so open to condemnation. Many prefectorial and judiciary reports attested the existence of industrious, devoted *commissaires* who came much nearer, if not quite up to, the ideal type.

With all his faults and thinness of purse, the French *commissarie* of police, already an indispensable man long before the Second Empire, saw his numbers increase from 1852 to 1870, and has continued to be indispensable ever since.

Perhaps the remark of an imperial official in 1853 could be applied elsewhere as well, "the institution of cantonal *commissaire* sins less in itself than by the men who bring it to life."[54]

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[32]Min. Police to colonels of Gendarmerie, Nov. 23, 1852. *AD*, Bouches-du-Rhône, Marseille, M[6] 276.

[33]Min. Police to prefects, May 31, 1852. *Archives Nationales*, Paris (hereafter written *AN*), Fla* 2121.

[34]Communiqué of the Ministry of Interior, published in *La Presse* (Paris), Sept. 11, 1865.

[35]A total of 41 commissaires were in this département. No information was available for 5; 4 had no previous occupation shown. Figures are taken from personnel records in *AD*, Bouches-du-Rhône, Aix-en-Provence, 35.U.3.

[36]Report to the Emperor, Feb. 27, 1855. *J.C.P.*, I (1855), 97.

[37]Min. Interior to prefects, March 10, 1855. *J.C.P.*, I (1855), 195-08.

[38]Decree of Feb. 27, 1855. *J.C.P.*, I (1855), 102-04.

[39]E.g., the typical complaint of a prefect in 1855, who reported that their pay, "already meager enough in ordinary years, is truly quite insufficient in these unusual circumstances . . . Prefect of the Côtes-du-Nord, Jan. 5, 1855. *An*, F[1c] III Côtes-du-Nord 11.

[40]Raised to this sum by a decree of March 28, 1852. *AN*, F[1a] 1323.

[41]A. de Toulgoët, "Les commissaires de police cantonaux," *La Presse, Sept.* 9, 1865.

[42]E.g., Count d'Artense, personal letter to Napoleon III, Paris, Feb. 11, 1863, *AN*, F[1c] III Seine 31.

[43]E.g., Min. Police to colonels of Gendarmerie, March 28, 1852. *AD*, Bouches-du-Rhône, Marseille, M[6] 276; and Procureur-Général at Aix-en-Provence to Min. Justice, *AN*, BB[30] 370, plaquette 3, dated June 19, 1853.

[44]E.g., Prefect of the Ain to Inspector-General of Police at Lyon. July 13, 1852. *AN*, F[7] 12166.

[45]Prefect of the Loire-Inférieure to Interior, Sept. 14, 1851. *AN*, F[1c] III Loire-Inférieure 8.

[46]Procureur-Général at Montpellier, July 8, 1853. *AN*, BB[30] 380, plaquette 3.

[47]Procureur-Général at Amiens, Aug. 16, 1853. *AN*, BB[30] 550.

[48]Shown by many documents in the *AN*, series F[7] 3008[1] and F[7] 12166.

[49]E.g., Commissaire of Altkirch, Bas-Rhin, to prefect, 1858. *AN*, F[7] 12243.

[50]Sub-prefect of Châtellerault, Vienne, to Min. Interior, Jan. 1, 1859. *AN*, F[1c] III Vienne 6.

[51]To prefects, Dec. 6, 1853. *AD*, Bouches-du-Rhône, Marseille, M[6] 276.

[52]Prefect of Tarn-et-Garonne to Interior, Nov. 1854. *AN*, F[1c] III Tarn-et-Garonne 7.

[53]David, *op. cit.*

[54]Procureur-Général at Dijon to Min. Justice, Aug. 19, 1853. *AN*, BB[30] 550. ★★★

HUNTER—OR HUNTED?

It is autumn in the woods and you're out hunting. You stop suddenly. In the brush something is stirring. You raise your gun, sure you've sighted game.

A human cry is heard, and suddenly you realize what you're aiming at; a fellow hunter. You hold your fire.

Scene scare you? Well, though this one turned out with a happy ending, at least two hundred hunters are killed ever year in hunting accidents.

Behind every hunting accident is one cause: carelessness. Somewhere along the line someone has forgotten one or more of the basic rules of hunting safely.

The most fundamental rule is that of treating a gun with the proper respect due it. The careful hunter always carries a loaded gun so that he controls the direction of the muzzle even if he should stumble. When he raises his gun to fire, he is sure of his target. Before he pulls the trigger, he *knows* what he's firing at.

The careful hunter always keeps the barrel and action clear of all obstructions to prevent the chance of his gun backfiring on him. He never crosses over or through a fence or climbs a tree with a loaded gun. When he breaks and unloads his gun, he does it only when he has stopped moving.

The hunter who knows his business never shoots at a flat, hard surface or even the surface of water. He knows just how deadly a ricochet can be. He never points his gun at anything unless he wants to shoot it. Hunting is fun to him, but it is still basically *serious* business. He never leaves a gun lying around unattended without first unloading it. He never drinks while hunting. He knows that the only time to lift a friendly glass during a hunting trip is at the fireside after the day's hunting is over.

Why isn't every hunter careful? Some of them just haven't been taught the rules. Others know all the safety tips but forget. They forget to use common sense.

Only some of the rules for hunting safety have been given here. This season sixteen million Americans will again take to the fields and forests. Let's hope every Nimrod follows the rules and no human game is bagged.

Psychological Motivation of Juveniles

By Vernon V. Sisney, Ph.D.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *After receiving the B.A. and M.S. degrees in Psychology at the University of Oklahoma, the author served with the Oklahoma Department of Public Safety from 1937 to 1944, working on projects in highway safety, public relations, civilian defense and in personnel administration. Subsequently, he received the Ph.D. degree from the University of Texas and after a two-year tour of duty as a Psychologist in the U. S. Navy, associated himself with the Veterans Administration in 1946. In addition to his other responsibilities, Dr. Sisney has for the past two years conducted group therapy with boys, age 14-16, who are on probation from the Juvenile Court. While he has worked with juveniles for years, this has proved to be a new and enlightening experience in the application of group therapy as a tool of adjustment.*

Dr. Sisney continues to maintain a close relationship with law enforcement agencies in the planning of police training programs and recently assisted in the selection of troopers for the Department of Public Safety during the last two Patrol Schools. He is a member of the American Psychological Association, Southwestern Psychological Association, Oklahoma Psychiatric Society and President-Elect of the Oklahoma Psychological Association. The Journal is pleased to present this series of two articles based upon a paper he delivered before the Fifth Southwestern Homicide Investigators Seminar (1958) held at the University of Oklahoma. The second article will appear in the next issue of POLICE.

NEVER in the history of the U. S. has there been so much concern and confusion about its teenagers. Some say that this is a terribly maligned generation while others feel that no other generation has performed more service for its community than today's youth.

There are those who blame the parents for the unruly behavior of the teenager. Others point an accusing finger at the younger generation, claiming that they do not appreciate what their parents do for them and that they show very little respect.

The result of all this is much anxiety and confusion in both parent and child. The parents read books about how to rear children, seek counsel, pray, inhibit their impulses and lash out viciously, all in an effort to bring their children up to be good substantial citizens. With all these conflicting ideas and feelings the result is usually a very frustrated and inconsistent parent.

In the midst of all this is the child — the recipient of the feelings and actions of his parents. He may comply with their demands or he may rebel in an effort to preserve his individuality. As a result he may go too far and the manifest behavior is that of the so-called "juvenile delinquent."

What is a juvenile delinquent? An individual up to a certain chronological age is considered a juvenile by definition. If such an individual gets in trouble with the rules of society, especially if he gets a police record, he is considered a juvenile delinquent. A few years ago we parents were juveniles and those who crossed the lines of social acceptability could be considered delinquents. But today we don't have horses to "borrow" for a short gallop. We have automobiles to "borrow" for short drag.

During the last seven consecutive years there has been a reported increase in juvenile delinquency. This is an appalling state of affairs and of vital concern to the citizens of the United States. In all fairness to the parents and the teenager we need to consider a very important factor that may make the picture appear darker than it really is. This is the problem of statistics. Not too many years ago when a child got into trouble the town marshal told the boy to go home or took him home to his parents. They were advised of his deviant behavior and they in turn meted out certain punishments. About the only thing that was heard about it was the noise that emitted from the woodshed while the boy and his father were having a rapid conference. The marshal did not keep a written record of the offense. He remembered the incident and watched for any future re-occurrence or similar unruly behavior.

Times have changed. Now we keep accurate records and treat the information contained therein in many ways statistically. This gives us a picture of how many teenagers are in trouble, the kinds of offenses, frequency, and many other things. These facts are needed in order that we study the problem but they, at the same time, tend to make the juvenile of today look much more delinquent than his father or grandfather. In less guarded moments we hear something about the escapades and adventures of the elder population but there is little that can be proved by written record.

Granted there has been an increase in juvenile delinquency, let us consider some of the factors that may have contributed to this unhappy turn of events. In one sense we might consider that every person under the age of twenty is a "victim" of World War II. Family constellations were broken by the father and husband going into the service leaving the mother to

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shoulder full responsibility for the rearing of the child or children. This change alone is enough to disrupt and bring about a change in the attitude of the child. Beyond this however, mothers reacted in different ways to this forced separation. Some mothers became resentful at having their husbands taken and took their anger out on the child or rejected him. There were those mothers who were forced to go to work because their standard of living could not be maintained on the husband's pay. This left the child with neither mother or father to guide and care for him in time of need and frustration. Other mothers turned their attention outward, neglecting the child to satisfy their needs in many and various ways. These factors along with many others contributed much to our present problem.

There is still another factor however that may be more important than any of the above mentioned — this is a shift in society with regard to the responsibility for the behavior of the young citizens. As mentioned earlier, the parent used to be the responsible agent for the actions of the child. While this is still basically true there is the tendency these days to shift the responsibility to society — namely, the law enforcement agencies. This has resulted in a rather paradoxical situation — if the child in trouble is not our own we are content with and encouraged that he comes under the due process of law. But if the child happens to be our own we scream like panthers to declare our rights as private citizens to correct or handle the correction of our children as we see fit.

It would seem that it is high time parents decide which way they want the ball to roll. If they want the responsibility of their children, they need to take steps to grasp it to them. On the other hand if they do not want this responsibility, they need to work toward getting more trained people in the law enforcement agencies in order that a more effective job be carried out. One thing for sure it has done nothing but nurture the delinquency problem with the present confusion in responsibility.

For a number of years I have worked closely with the juvenile court and for two years I conducted group therapy with a number of boys on parole or probation from the court. It would hardly be accurate to say they came to the group of their own free will in that they usually were given the choice of attending or going to the training school. After four times however, they were not required to come to the group but they were encouraged to attend. In other words, some of the boys had to be "sold" in four sessions to keep them coming. Others would attend because the court encouraged attendance. The longer they attended, the more they seemed to look forward to the sessions. The degree of improvement ran almost in direct proportion to the length of stay in the group. ★★★

EDITOR'S NOTE: The second in this series of two articles will appear in the next issue of POLICE.

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SPECIAL AGENTS SECTION

Edited by John Richelieu Davis

Between Patience and Fortitude

By John T. Murphy

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The office of Mr. Murphy as Supervising Investigator in The New York Public Library System, is one of the units of The Business Office of the Library under the jurisdiction of Mr. George L. Schaefer, Business Manager. Mr. Murphy has held the post as Supervising Investigator since February 1959. He was formerly Assistant Protection Manager of Alexander's Department Stores in New York City. In the same city, he has held the positions as Assistant Protection Manager for Lord and Taylor, Protection Manager for Abercrombie and Fitch, and Protection Manager for Bonwit Teller-Tiffany.*

Prior to entering the retail security field, he was a member of The Security Department of The Federal Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Company, Port Newark, New Jersey. He is a combat veteran of the 512 Field Artillery Battalion, 3rd Army, and the 503rd Military Police Battalion, 3rd Army Headquarters in Europe.

THE title of this article is taken from the names of the two lionesses of sculptured pink Tennessee marble that stand silent watch outside the entrance to The New York Public Library, between 40th Street and 42nd Street on Fifth Avenue, in the City of New York. Millions of resident New Yorkers and visitors from all parts of the United States and every country of the globe pass in front of these stone figures annually, and comparatively few people know that they have names. The lioness on the North side of the building as you look at it from Fifth Avenue is Patience and the one on the South side is Fortitude. These stone figures are considered by staff members of the library, and the general public of New York, as symbols of The New York Public Library.

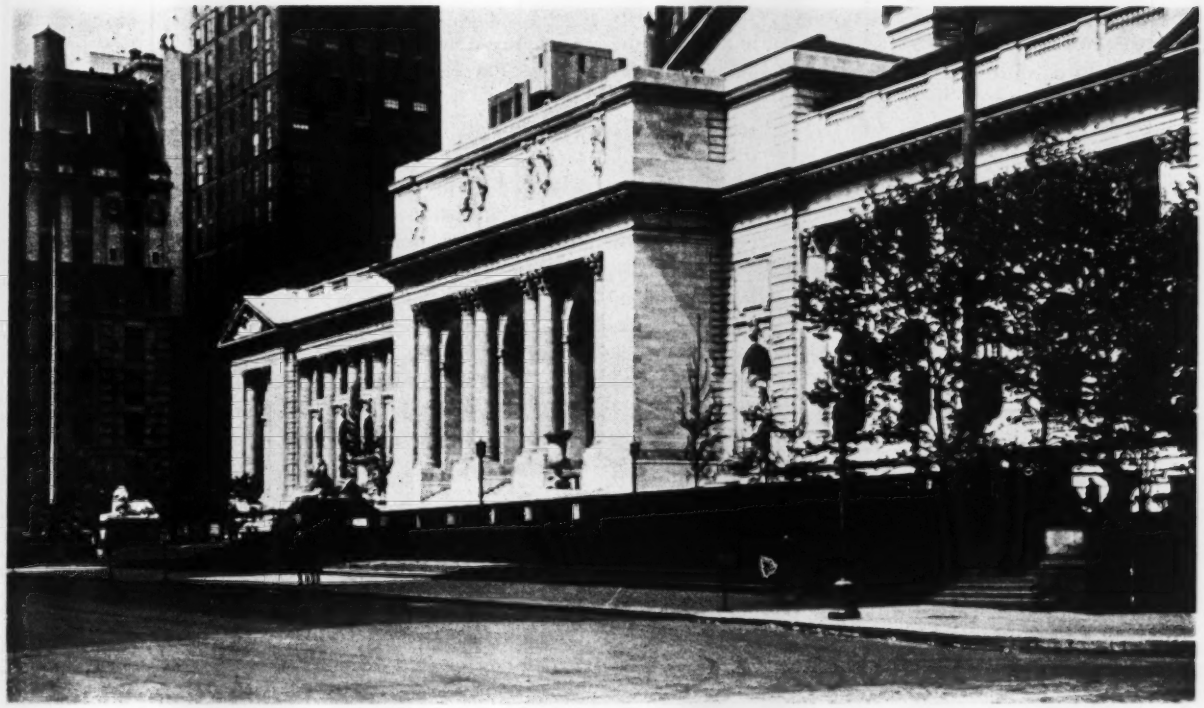
Last Christmas season, when Patience and Fortitude were both decorated with large Christmas wreaths, an act of vandalism was perpetrated – someone set the wreath decoration around Patience's neck afire – resulting in considerable damage to the figure and requiring a rather extensive repair job by The Division of Monuments, Department of Parks, City of New York. The work of restoring Patience to her former beauty and aplomb is still going on.

Along with being unaware of the names of Patience and Fortitude, many people do not know that the library has a Security Department, officially the title is Office of The Special Investigator, located in the Central Building, Fifth Avenue and 42nd Street, Room 222. The reason many people are unaware of the existence of this office is simple. If you use The Library lawfully, as laid down in the simple rules and regulations, you will never hear from The Special Investigator's Office, but if you do violate library rules you can expect to hear from us. The New York Public Library System is made up of the Central Building at Fifth Avenue and 42nd Street and eighty-seven branch libraries located in three boroughs of The City of New York, 1) Manhattan, 2) The Bronx, and 3) Richmond (Staten Island). The annual circulation of books in the Circulation Division numbers about 15,000,000 volumes. The Reference Division has several millions more–books in every known language and on every conceivable subject–they range in value from one dollar to five hundred thousand dollars each (Gutenberg Bible). The physical plant, buildings and equipment, is of necessity large and the staff to operate The Library numbers thousands.

The physical plant and the books and other materials in the branch libraries are the property of The City of New York, purchased with City funds. Along with general Security, The Special Investigator's Office is charged with responsibility for overly long overdue book recovery, and recovery of other material (the phonograph record archives contain over 50,000 recordings) and the collection of fines and payment for lost material.

The Special Investigator's Office is composed of a Supervising Investigator, and seven Investigators, a Secretary, and eight clerical employees. Under the law of The State of New York, Section 265 Education Law– "Whoever willfully detains any book, newspaper, magazine, pamphlet, manuscript or other property belonging to any public or incorporated library, reading room, museum or other educational institution, for thirty days

Address: John T. Murphy, Supervising Investigator, The New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and 42nd Street, New York 18, New York.



The two lionesses, Patience and Fortitude, stand guard out in front of The New York Public Library symbolizing, as it were, the security operations in a vast metropolitan library system.

after notice in writing to return same, given after the expiration of the time which by the rules of such institution, such article or other property may be kept, shall be punished by a fine of not less than one or more than twenty-five dollars, or by imprisonment in the jail not exceeding six months," and the said notice shall bear on its face a copy of this section. This section of the law is used to recover material borrowed legally, but not returned upon becoming due.

The investigators are selected on a record of proven past ability, are required, prior to appointment, to be High School graduates, with a minimum of three years investigative experience, and are assigned with an experienced investigator to the "field" for a minimum of one month; with the experienced investigator being a different one each week of the training period, to afford the "trainee" an opportunity to observe individual investigative techniques, and encouraged to develop his own. They are required to be equally at home at a United Nations Office, or at an Irish wake or wedding where the relatives can't seem to agree on the disposition of the deceased or if the bride has made the proper choice. Common sense is the rule and if you don't know, make it your business to find out.

The inscription on the outside right hand wall as you come into the Library at 42nd Street reads "Truth Beareth Away the Victory" and the office in all of its investigations leans heavily to this advice.

Cases are received from any of the eighty-seven branches in the System in relation to Security problems. These come first by telephoned information from the staff member in charge of the branch. This is followed up from the branch with a written memorandum. Upon receipt of the telephoned information, dependent on urgency, one or more investigators are dispatched to the branch. Facts are determined, and, if the perpetrator is known to staff members (many are, since the branch operation is somewhat of a neighborhood affair) he is visited at home, at school, or place where confidential information obtained indicates he may be found.

The various precincts and youth squads always afford the utmost in cooperation and assistance to the investigators when the situation requires Police assistance. The utmost in cooperation to law enforcement organizations on the federal, municipal, and state levels is given by the staff of The Special Investigator's Office, whenever requested—many times, however, some officer will call, feeling he has his case neatly in the bag, and advise us he has the name of a person who pawned an item taken in the commission of a burglary, and who showed a library registration card at the time of pawning the item. We are always unhappy to have to tell him that the Registration Division maintains its files in numerical order and not alphabetcally—and to advise pawnbrokers or other persons accepting library cards as identification to take the number, rather than the name; you are definitely then in business.

Overdue book cases are made up, when the branch records show borrowed material not returned; the individual is notified direct by the particular branch. Upon no response, a second notice is sent from the Registration Office (point from which Registration Cards are issued). If there is no response to this notice, it then becomes a Special Investigator case and a further notice is sent pointing out the provisions of section 265 of the Education Law. If no response is received to this notice, it becomes a field investigation case; the original application in the person's handwriting, complete wth address, place of employment, and the name of one references obtained from the Registration files and the investigator is on his way.

Many cases of outright theft occur, and perpetrators are apprehended through the investigators assuming the guise of "readers," within the branches from which losses of material have been reported. When these apprehensions are made they are followed through under the applicable section of the law, dependent on the value of the material stolen and in the case of fraudulent or altered registrations, under the laws relating to forgery.

Two typical cases: Four branches in a comparatively close area reported loss of expensive Reference books (non-circulating), among them encyclopedias, large dictionaries, sports records books, Bibles, cookbooks, some with a value of $45.00 each. Investigation, observation, and inquiries developed the information that certain books were being offered for sale in a tavern located on Lenox Avenue and 134th Street, New York City. Observation resulted in the apprehension of a male narcotics addict, aged thirty-two, with a twelve-year narcotic habit, who had been arrested and convicted on Library complaint on two prior occasions on a charge of Petit Larceny. Information from the defendant disclosed the names and addresses of six individuals who were found in possession of library property and charged as receivers of stolen property, since they could not explain their possession of property bearing the stamp of The New York Public Library.

A call is received by the Branch from a parent explaining that her son or daughter was threatened while in the library—the information is relayed to The Special Investigator's Office and it is known that there is gang activity in the surrounding neighborhood. The gang goes under the name of The Valient Crowns, The Lucky Lords, The Dragons, or some other such sounding name, and is usually composed of a group of teenagers, tough, vicious, and with a combined I.Q. of 00, who are fast moving and smart, street wise. We find the boy or girl has refused to associate with them and as a result is threatened. If we can apprehend them in the library, preferably the ringleaders, we give them some fatherly advice on the purpose of the Library and what to expect if they are found there again under similar circumstances. The youth Squads of the various Police commands are always more than cooperative and we pass on to them any information we develop.

The Barcelona file (from the old song—I'm One of The Nuts from Barcelona) of The Special Investigator's Office is well populated as it is in any other large Security operation. One file card is occupied with pertinent data relating to a gent who is working out a mathematical route to the moon, and therefore requires books on higher mathematics. We give him every assistance hoping he will complete the route, take it and stay there, and get him out of our files and hair.

The activities of the investigators and clerical staff members of The Special Investigator's Office of The New York Public Library have resulted in the recovery of 73,000 books in the past five months and since the office has only recently been expanded personnel wise, we feel the coming months will be equally successful in this phase of our operation.

The phonograph record problem, if it is true that music hath power to soothe the savage beast, also seems to make people forgetful in returning borrowed records. The pseudo poets, intellectuals, and beatniks of New York's famous Greenwich Village and other bohemian haunts, seem to feel that possession constitutes ownership so that the investigators have to be "way out man" at the time they may visit a "pad" when a musicale (with New York Public Library records) is in progress, said records being two or three months overdue.

The New York Public Library may be used free of charge by citizen or alien, rich or poor, and if you adhere to the few rules and regulations, you will never hear from The Special Investigator's Office, but if you have borrowed material and have not returned it, or you create a Security problem on any of the Library premises in The New York Public Library System, you will definitely meet us, sooner than you think.

If you circumvent the rules and come up with a "gimmick" which seems original, and you are, it seems, getting away with something, and a neatly dressed, diplomatic sounding person speaks to you in a nice tone of voice, and requests, "May I see your identification," the chances are you have an investigator from The Special Investigator's Office, on your hands and your "gimmick" which seemed original to you is old hat to him and he will trip you up with a few well phrased questions, in short order.

Of the 13,000 people who borrow books daily from the library system, an average of 500 will not return the book on the date due, and about twenty-five will keep books out two or three months beyond the due date. This, along with problems of general security makes the Office of The Special Investigator a busy place, but with Patience and Fortitude and the help of the investigators of The Special Investigator's Office we hope your use of the Library will be pleasant and intellectually profitable. ★★★

The Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth

By Lois Lundell Higgins

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The Journal is indebted to Dr. Higgins for this first hand report covering the 1960 Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, which she has written exclusively for POLICE. The author is well known in the law enforcement field. The first training program for Policewomen in Chicago was organized and developed under her direction. She is a member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, serving as a member of its Crime Prevention Committee, and a member of the Public Relations and Legislative Committees of the Illinois Association of Chiefs of Police. She is Chairman of the Advisory Board of the National Police Officers Association of America. Dr. Higgins organized the Chicago Policewomen's Association and served as its first President and at the same time as a member of the Executive Board of the Illinois Policewomen's Association.*

A tireless lecturer, she has appeared in over 100 cities, 30 states and 56 universities and colleges in this country and is a frequent participant on radio and television programs. She recently completed a trip around the world during which she made a survey of youthful crime, crime prevention methods and women police. En route, she lectured at Manila, Singapore, Beirut, Bombay and Athens. She is currently President of the International Association of Women Police.

THE recommendations of the 1960 Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, held in Washington, D. C., March 27 - April 2, are now available in their final, published form. It required about two months after the end of the conference early in April to sum up what everyone was talking about and get it into print.

Now we have the results: 670 recommendations, which were accepted by a special committee from the 1600 proposed by conference discussion groups.

Address: Dr. Lois Lundell Higgins, Director, Illinois Crime Prevention Bureau, 160 N. LaSalle Street, Chicago 1, Illinois.

Many of these must inevitably concern police personnel. Most police officers do not need a White House Conference to tell them that delinquency referrals to juvenile courts were 175 per cent higher in 1958 than in 1948, while the estimated juvenile population, according to the U. S. Children's Bureau, only increased 37 per cent.

Recommendation No. 525 proposes, as one answer to this growing national scandal:

"That a Federal commission be created to advise the President and Congress on matters relating to delinquency, including general coordination of Federal activities in this field; and that Federal funds be provided as follows: To State and Local governments, on a matching basis, for programs of prevention, control. and treatment . . ."

This proposal would combine two increasingly common governmental devices: 1. a governmental commission, (constitutionally speaking) that is neither of the executive, legislative, or judicial branch of government; and, 2. fund-matching, a device by which states or other governmental units are empowered to administer Federally-planned programs if they will put up part of the money.

A recommendation framed by possibly a small number of delegates in a conference that made some 669 other recommendations is far from having the power of a Federal statute. But at least some of our people, when confronted with the dismaying prospect of mushrooming delinquency, are already demanding a Federal program.

For some people who do not like Federal intervention in local affairs, it may seem that the camel is already sticking its head into the tent. To others, such a program may appear very desirable. Everyone concerned should at least know that such a proposal has been made.

Those, it appears, who don't think in terms of a Federal program favor state programs, (Can 7,600 participants in a conference, meeting in 210 separate Work Groups and 18 Forums, adopt recommendations that do not agree with each other? Certainly.)

Recommendation No. 530: "That the several States assume their basic obligation to provide adequate facilities and services for the control and correction of juvenile delinquency whenever a local commuunity is unable or unwilling to provide them."

As the Director of a State Crime Prevention Agency and as a policewoman, the author has long advocated appointment of trained juvenile officers in each police jurisdiction. At the State of Illinois Conference preceding the White House Conference, I therefore submitted two recommendations which were adopted unanimously. They were:

1. That at least one adequately trained law enforcement officer in each jurisdiction should be designated to handle juvenile offenders, and to work closely with other agencies concerned with delinquency prevention and control.

2. That training facilities for juvenile control officers, recently made available through the joint effort of the University of Illinois and the Illinois Association of Chiefs of Police, should be continued and expanded as necessary.

At the White House Conference I was assigned to Workshop No. 192, and submitted the same recommendations. geared to the national level. The first was identical with the state

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recommendation. The second recommended that "training facilities for juvenile control officers, recently made available through the various universities, colleges, and teacher-training programs, and the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the International Association of Women Police, and the International Juvenile Officers Association, be continued and expanded as necessary."

Recommendation No. 542, we are pleased to see, restates these two proposals.

"The effective control and correction of juvenile delinquency requires," it states, among other things, "specialized juvenile services, staffed by specifically trained and qualified personnel, in law enforcement agencies."

Such recommendations, and others concerning juvenile delinquency, child dependency, the inculcation of codes of ethical behavior in young people, juvenile courts, and juvenile probation and parole procedures, are worth the careful consideration of police administrators everywhere.

Some thirty police officers and representatives of police organizations and police publications, as a matter of fact, did attend the conference. Among these was at least one chief, Jesse T. Rose of Los Alamos, New Mexico. Most of the others were commanding officers of state or local juvenile bureaus or juvenile officers. The author attended as President of the International Association of Women Police, with Mrs. Grace Hayes of Chicago, Secretary of the Association, and we were pleased to note several other policewomen present.

Lois Beckett, from Canada, and Erma E. Kershaw were the other two delegates from the I. A. W. P. which had been allowed four. Most of those attending, however, were men, among them Capt. Adolph C. Jacobsmeyer, St. Louis; Lieut. William E. May, Providence, Rhode Island; Sgt. Robert P. Burke, Danville, Pa.; Lieut. Roy Hibbard, Longview, Washington; Capt. George W. D'Artois, Shreveport, La.; Capt. Michael S. Wolke, Milwaukee; Det. Nicholas Pevelko, Youngstown, Ohio; Sgt. John A. Olejet, Youngstown, Ohio; Insp. Victor D. Vieira, Berkely, California; Capt. Charles W. Magaha, Maryland State Police; Det. Wayne Buddemeier, Michigan State Police; Capt. John F. Ryan, Det's. Merl E. Swope, Rudolph P. Biro, and Insp. John E. Winters, Washington, D. C.; Lieut. Rudy Costa, Norwalk, Conn.; Avery M. Jackson, Detroit. Among the women police present were: Marie H. Crowley, Boston; Elvera M. Riggs, Evansville, Ind.; Erma E. Kershaw, Hartford, Conn.; and Lois Beckett, Sault Ste Marie, Ontario. There were also a few people whose government, university, or journalistic activities involved the study of juvenile delinquency. And one must not neglect to mention Frank Popello, Maricopa County Sheriff's Office, Phoenix, Arizona, the only police officer who served as a member of the President's National Advisory Committee on the Conference.

These are a few of the individuals we were able to identify. It is too bad that there were not two or three times as many present, because meetings such as this may tend to be critical, in the absence of first-hand knowledge, of police handling of juveniles.

Perhaps there is something to criticize in the way juvenile offenders are treated in some areas, but people who think in terms of stereotypes often do not think that police officers have a sympathetic approach to juvenile problems, or any real understanding of them. It is good that they should encounter some police personnel who are living proof that modern police practice involves active programs of crime prevention, through work with juveniles, as well as the more familiar programs of crime deterrence and crime repression.

Delegates were assigned to the five "Theme Assemblies" and 18 Forums that met each morning, and to the 210 afternoon Work Groups on the basis of preference and information supplied to the administrative staff on advance questionnaires. The questionnaire data was fed on punched cards into IBM machines, which "decided" in a rigorously scientific manner, into which groups everyone should go. The IBM machines had been "ordered" to get representatives of as many different professional fields and religious backgrounds as possible (some of the delegates represented church groups) into each Work Shop.

The planned result was that there would be the greatest possible exchange of viewpoints on each topic. Presumably a concensus of opinion, or at least a modus vivendi, would be reached on each question. The combined wisdom and experience of the delegates would suggest the most acceptable answers to many problems.

We have mentioned several of the Conference recommendations that involved police work with juveniles. What are some of the others?

No. 528: "That every State and community establish a professional-

ly staffed Citizen's Committe on Children and Youth in Conflict, (juvenile delinquents) to achieve better coordination and greater effectiveness of all agencies engaged in research, prevention, diagnosis, and treatment — including the Courts; and the State committees be responsible for assisting local committees in their program."

Out of a similar resolution of the 1950 White House Conference, came many of the present State Youth Commissions designed to deal with youth problems. Public opinion and the success of various states such as the State of Illinois with such commissions will probably bring about establishment of more state youth commissions within the next few years. It is a question which state associations of Chiefs of Police and state parole and probation groups might well discuss.

Recommendation No. 538 embodies a suggestion that many law enforcement agencies might find useful:

"That informational material and brief summaries of laws of major concern to young people be developed to help them avoid initial minor infractions which often lead to negative attitudes and more serious delinquency."

Several recommendations relate to governmental provisions concerning juveniles:

Recommendation No. 540: "That all states and their governmental subdivisions enact into law the essential elements of the model juvenile court law as drawn by the National Probation and Parole Association (NPPA), the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges, and the Children's Bureau, and particularly that the jurisdiction of the juvenile court be generally adopted and maintained up to age eighteen."

Recommendation No. 542: "That the effective control and correction of juvenile delinquency require:

— a specialized and adequately staffed court at the highest level of general jurisdiction, presided over by a full-time qualified judge;

— sufficient merit-selected probation personnel to meet the standards of the NPPA at salaries commensurate with professional status;

— a juvenile detention facility with a building and program conforming to nationally approved standards;

— specialized juvenile services, staffed by specifically trained and qualified personnel, in law enforcement agencies . . . "

In the interest of crime prevention, we find the suggestion in recommendation No. 542 that the "effective control and correction of delinquency requires . . . a juvenile detention facility with a building and program conforming to nationally approved standards" extremely desirable. We have long urged that juvenile offenders *never* be jailed with habitual criminals.

The best way to prevent crime is to try to stop young people, whose initial troubles with the law may be relatively minor, from developing criminal habits at a time when their character is still not fully developed. It is false economy to say that a community "can't afford" separate juvenile quarters. Can it afford the gigantic losses that confirmed criminality entail?

We also note with pleasure the recommendation that there be "specialized juvenile services staffed by specifically trained and qualified personnel, in law enforcement agencies:" which restates the recommendations we made in Workshop No. 192.

As an effective crime prevention measure, we have also urged the adoption through discussions among high school students, in special assemblies or congresses of codes of conduct. We are therefore gratified at Recommendation No. 469:

"That each family, as the primary source for transmitting ethical principles, develops cooperatively a positive code of conduct . . . to guide its members toward social growth and spiritual, emotional, physical, and mental development."

Recommendation No. 474:

"That research be undertaken into the origin and the nature and development of ethical principles and codes of conduct in children; the effect of mass media on the development of codes of conduct in children . . . "

For those alarmed at the possible pernicious influence on potential sex criminals of the growing tide of obscene literature and pornographic materials being circulated through the mails and sold openly from newsstands or covertly by pornography peddlers, recommendation No. 333 will be welcome:

"That the dissemination of obscene literature be controlled through:

—the prohibition of mailing lists for this purpose and of tie-in (news stand) sales of publications;

—a program of public education, including a nationwide conference,

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and exploration of the need for Federal legislation;

—diligent enforcement of existing laws."

The last, "diligent enforcement of existing laws," is purely a matter of police action, and of an aroused public opinion that will back up such action. There are signs that this public opinion is becoming more vocal today.

It will be 1970 before the next White House Conference meets. When it does meet, if one of the 1960 Conference recommendations is adopted, the 1970 Conference will have as its theme "world youth problems." It will be a prelude to a United Nations youth conference to be called in the fall of 1970.

Meantime, a National Committee for Children and Youth has already been appointed to carry on in the interim. Like the 1950 conference, the recent meeting has helped stimulate a lasting interest in concerted efforts to solve youth problems.

In the various states, committees organized to participate in the recent conference, are also following up on conference recommendations and on recommendations adopted by the state committees before they attended the Washington conference. In Illinois, for instance, a series of workshops will be organized, starting this fall. One of these will concern juvenile court procedures.

Illinois young people who attended the Washington meeting (for the first time a number of delegates represented youth itself) are helping to form a separate state organization.

Another reminder of the conference is the excellent photographic exhibit, "These Are Our Children," now being shown in various U. S. cities. The exhibit photographs, which range up to life size, represent the most ambitious photographic story of young people ever assembled. It was prepared for the conference with the technical assistance of the Eastman Kodak Company. Be sure to see it if you can. ★★★

Upper—Juliette Gordon Low with one of the very early Girl Scout troops organized in Savannah, Georgia.

Right—This portrait of Juliette Gordon Low was painted in London in 1887 by William Hughes, R. A.

GIRL SCOUTS HONOR BIRTHDAY FOUNDER

On October 31, 1860 a baby daughter was born in Savannah, Georgia to an aristocratic Southern family—the Gordons. One hundred years later, almost three and one-half million Americans across the breadth of the United States and in some forty-nine foreign countries will celebrate her birthday. For the child grew up to be Juliette Gordon Low, who, in her middle years, had the wisdom, enterprise and faith to found Girl Scouting in the United States.

It was in March 1912 that Mrs. Low visited her ancestral home in Savannah after an extended residence in England. On her first night home she phoned an old friend who was headmistress of a girls' school. "Come right over," urged Mrs. Low. "I've got something for the girls of Savannah, and all America, and all the world, and we're going to start it tonight."

The friend came. Soon thereafter, a group of twelve young girls accepted an invitation to take tea with Mrs. Low. She talked to them about her idea. They responded with enthusiasm. Thus, was born, on March 12, 1912, Girl Scouts of the United States of America.

Since that memorable day almost half a century ago, approximately seventeen million girls and adults have enjoyed the fun and camaraderie of Girl Scouting, have been helped to become resourceful, creative, responsible citizens. Today, more than two and one-half million girls between the ages of seven and seventeen years and about eight hundred thousand adults are Girl Scouts. The person who would have been least surprised by the phenomenal growth of Girl Scouting is Mrs. Low herself.

Until her death in 1927, Mrs. Low travelled throughout the country organizing troops, developing and training leadership, winning community support. She also wrote the early handbooks, planned program activities for the girls, designed the first uniform and financed the movement personally, even selling her beautiful pearls when her resources ran low.

One of the first public service films produced in America was a Girl Scout movie, which Juliette Gordon Low had made in 1918, when movies were still in their infancy. International friendship, youth service to the community, scouting for handicapped girls—these ideas are as fresh today as when Mrs. Low made them an integral part of Girl Scouting in the every earliest days of the movement.

The world of 1960 barely resembles Juliette Gordon Low's world of 1912. Yet the organization she brought into being continues to flourish. This is, indeed, a monument to one of the most remarkable women in our country's history. ★★★

COMBAT SHOOTING

POLICE FIREARMS — AMMUNITION — SHOOTING TECHNIQUES

Edited by Paul B. Weston

The Problems of Marksmanship Training In the Smaller Police Department

By Albert C. Cross

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Sergeant Cross is Rangemaster as well as Coach and Team Manager of the Pistol Team in the Police Department of Lodi, California. He is qualified by the National Rifle Association as a pistol and rifle Coach. Recognized as one of the best combat shots among the police of California, he would be a bad man to mix with in a fusillade of bullets at the scene where, for example, a bank robbery was being brought to a socially acceptable conclusion.*

THE PROBLEMS OF MARKSMANSHIP

THE smaller police department, just as a smaller business concern, is always at a disadvantage in the training of its personnel. Firearms training is just one of the many training projects of any police department requiring much needed interest and participation. There is no doubt that many a police officer carries his sidearm because it is a part of the mandatory equipment required by his department. If it were not for such requirements, I believe some would prefer to leave the weapon at home. This attitude is possibly brought about by the theory that, "We have a quiet town, nothing happens here, and if it did I could handle it without the use of a gun."

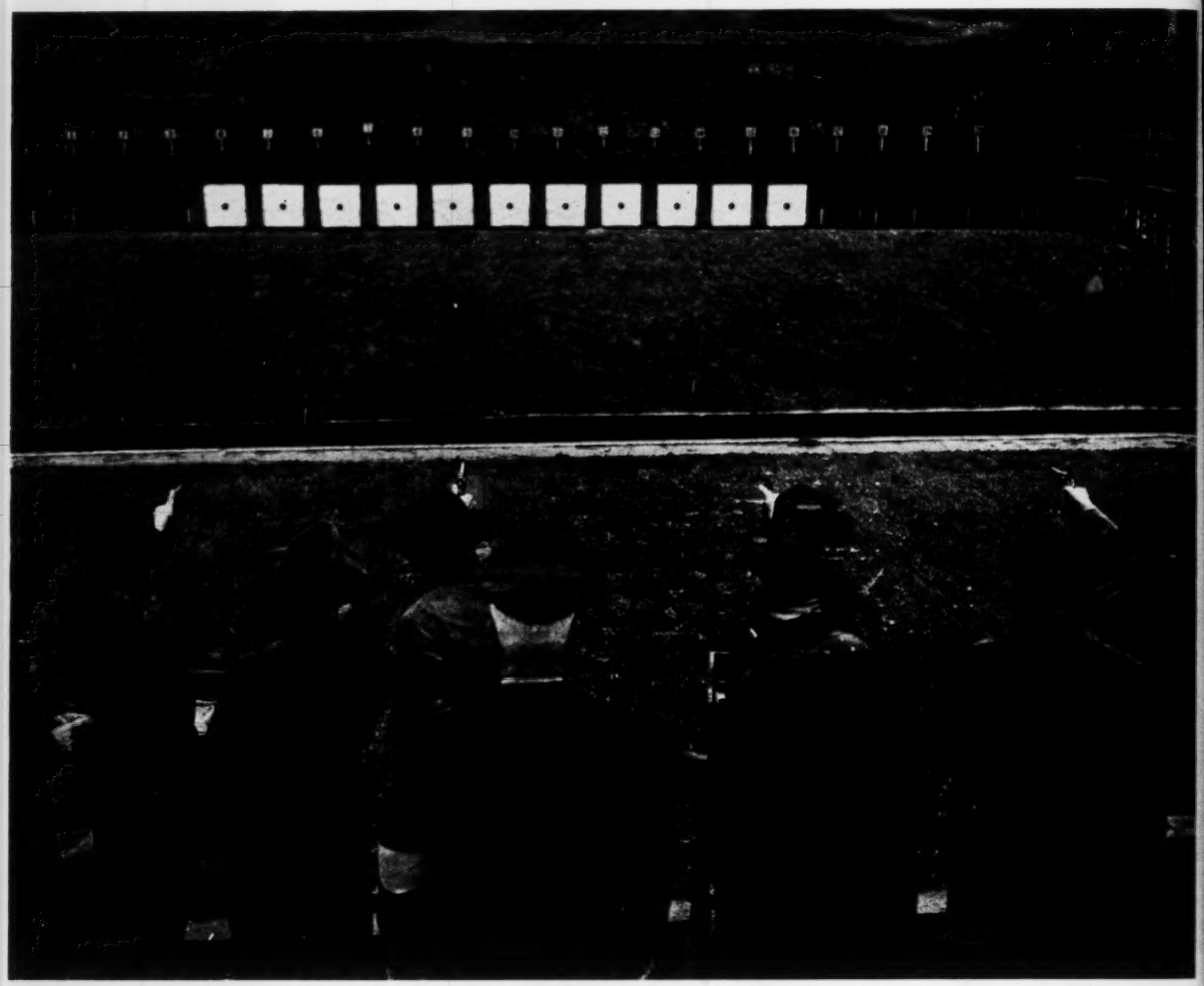
Due to this thinking—and I have been associated with personnel who have this attitude—it is probably harder to get overall interest in firearms training in a smaller department. I believe the larger police departments have stricter rules and regulations regarding mandatory appearances and qualifications on the range. In the smaller departments I have found that a major portion of the personnel are older, past the age of forty, and to a point in their lives where they do not take such an active part in sporting events, such as hunting, fishing, etc. These men usually appear on the pistol range because it is required. In some instances, they try to convince the person responsible for the training activities that they have made previous arrangements to be out of town the day training is to take place. If their excuse is sanctioned, it makes it that much easier to get out of the mandatory appearance, thus by-passing the training, and allowing them to eliminate the effort until the next scheduled session.

Address: Sergeant Albert C. Cross, Police Department, Lodi, California.

RANGE PERSONNEL

Without capable personnel to conduct the training classes, any police department is handicapped. As we all know, even those people who handle firearms on an every day basis, are still prone to get careless. One mistake with a loaded weapon can cost an officer his job, his life, or perhaps the life or limb of a fellow officer. Without trained, authorized range personnel handling firearms training, it would be preferable to desist. The personnel handling the training will spend many hours not only on the range conducting classes, but in addition, will have to utilize time in the procurement of materials to be used, i.e. ammunition, targets, cleaning equipment, etc. With someone to do the work, a majority of the group on the range will be content to relax and wait their turn to be called to the firing line. Many of them feel they are on their own free time, until they are called, so they desist from exerting themselves until it is absolutely necessary.

You will undoubtedly find some in the group, no matter how small, who will have an avid interest in the firearms training program and the use of firearms on an individual basis. These usually will be found in the younger age group. Many times they are the ones who have been indoctrinated in the use of weapons



Police Target Practice

in military service, where they have found that a lack of this knowledge could mean death or disaster. This portion of the group, then, is a prime target for the training officer in the procurement of a range officer and assistants. As in most cases the department, being small, with many varied regulations regarding overtime, compensatory time off, and the giving of any concession for extra work, might not be in a position to make the effort worthwhile for those who would give freely of their spare time.

The time will probably come when these same people will be required to direct their attention to other matters on the day of the training session, thus allowing them only sufficient time to accomplish the departmental requirements, then take their leave from the range. When this occurs, a substitute must be found to take his place. An untrained person is at a disadvantage in this capacity, as is the department, should an accident occur due to the inability of the person left in charge to control the function. A disinterested person is a hazard.

THE PISTOL RANGE

The training facility provided for firearms training must be adequate, not only as to size and appointments, but availability to men on duty, and closeness to the community as well. Many of the facilities I have observed have been in the vicinity of the city sewage disposal sites owned and operated by the cities. This land is usually located close enough to the city limits to afford quick return to the center of the community for the personnel on duty, should an emergency arise while they are undergoing training on the range. However, there are still many departments forced to use poor range facilities, several miles from town, possibly situated in a field, gully, or old rock and gravel pit donated by some benevolent citizen to the members of the police department. The land is normally without value, and the citizen might figure it will be kept clean under these circumstances as the city does not have to pay for its use.

If police organizations are going to continue to strive

NATURAL POSITION...NATURALLY COLT

Colt's Trooper—.38 Sp. or .22 L. R. Strong hand or weak hand, the barricade positions give maximum protection and maximum accuracy to the shooter. In the Practical Pistol Course, the positions are fired weak hand first, single action at 50 yards, then reversed for double action at 25.

■ With strong right hand, left foot is one step in front of right foot; left palm is placed on barricade forming V around right wrist, holding gun against barricade. A perfect bipod for the shot!

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Philadelphia Patrolman Joseph F. Arnone (right) receives $500 reward and commendation from R. Stewart Rauch, Jr., (left), president of The Philadelphia Saving Fund Society, for capturing "cowboy bandit" who held up the Manoa, Pa., banking office of PSFS. Philadelphia Police Commissioner Albert N. Brown (center) joined in commending the patrolman in ceremony at Philadelphia's City Hall.

for a professional status, they must require the best obtainable personnel of the highest caliber. If this is to be the case, it seems foolish not to perpetuate proper training facilities for personnel. In the sections of California and Nevada, where I have traveled, contacting range personnel, I have found the range facility situation to be very poor. The one shining light is the range of the San Joaquin County Sheriff's Department at French Camp, California. Built under the guiding hand of Sheriff Carlos Sousa, it shows what can and should be done for the proper installation of a firearms training facility. If this can be done for one group, it most assuredly can be accomplished for others on a comparable basis.

The size of the range must be tailored to the needs of the department. In this area, the Practical Pistol Course designed by the Federal Bureau of Investigation Course is the course fired for personal qualification. This course requires a larger range area than does the bullseye or double action courses of fire. Due to the length of the firing range, and the advancement of shooters, it must be constructed in a very safe manner. In setting up a schedule for personnel to fire this P.P.C., it must be determined that each relay will take approximately fifteen minutes. With a facility to handle only two officers firing at a time, each officer being required to fire a total of 100 rounds, you can see the effect it has on the smaller departments having 30 to 40 men assigned to this training. It will take the major portion of an eight hour period to give these officers the required amount of instruction. With many departments utilizing Auxiliary or Reserve Units, many of which were an off-spring of the Civil Defense program, the facility must be capable of giving these men comparable training.

THE MARKSMANSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM

Thus, it brings our thoughts to the training material itself. Even with proper and enthusiastic personnel and with the proper training facility, the program of the department falls flat on its face unless training materials are provided. Training materials cost money. In the smaller departments this problem of budgetary funds might seem more evident. It is usually difficult to sell this type of program. Provision must be made to see that the budget contains sufficient funds not only to afford a minimum program, but to increase and perfect the program whenever possible. There seems to be a variety of programs for firearms training. Some departments will fire 50 to 100 rounds per man per month, while other groups may be allowed only sufficient munitions and other materials to fire on a quarterly, semi-annual, or annual basis. Time and availability of personnel may have a bearing on the amount of training provided. I believe the smaller department is more aware of this situation because it usually has only one time set for all personnel to fulfill their obligation to the training program. Location of the training facility is a point of concern. If the personnel must leave the city limits to attend the required training sessions, it might be deemed advisable by the administrators to seek an in-city location.

There has always been controversy between administrators of police departments regarding the firing of factory loaded ammunition, as compared to purchasing ammunition components and equipment and manufacturing your own. Personally, I prefer the reloading of the ammunition. For the smaller department this will allow the availability of twice the ammunition you would normally get if factory products were purchased, thus a saving budget wise, and a further increase in the training program. As mentioned before, however, without personnel interested in this training and willing to devote some of their spare time making the ammunition, etc., the program will fail.

The hope of all police departments is still the obtaining of good, qualified personnel; however, the obligation of the department and the governmental heads is to provide the best possible training facilities to make certain personnel will receive the very best in training. It would be fortunate indeed, if the smaller departments could anticipate and produce a training program, per officer, of the same caliber as the larger police departments. I believe in many instances this is being progressively accomplished. I hope the day is not too far distant when no matter where the department is located, police personnel will each receive comparable training, remuneration, and other considerations which will continue to give this country the best civilian police force n the world. Preparedness is the watchword of our nation. It should also be the motto of every police department, regardless of size. Training is the backbone of preparedness. ★★★

Presidential Commendation for White House Police Combat Pistol Team

Winners of the Colt's-Indiana University Second International Combat Pistol Match Team Award held at Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana on June 10-12, 1960.

From left to right:

Private Homer G. Mood

Corporal William S. Crawford

Major Ralph C. Stover

Chief U. E. Baughman
(Chief, United States Secret Service)

Private Alexander V. Kissal

Corporal James E. Young

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

June 29, 1960

Dear Major Stover:

When I returned from the Far East, I heard of the great record achieved by our White House Police Combat Pistol Team in the recent international match at Indiana University. Please give the members of this team my heartiest congratulations.

I understand that we were the top team in a field of 75 entries. Our score of 396.8 out of a possible 400 is almost unbelievable -- and a splendid sign of the training and spirit of the men who devote their lives to the protection of this household.

With warm regard,

Sincerely,

Dwight D. Eisenhower

Major Ralph C. Stover
The White House
Washington, D. C.

Police Supervision and School Supervision A Comparison

By Lt. Col. Clifford L. Scott

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the third in a series of three articles dealing with the problems of supervision in police organization. The second article appeared in the preceding issue of POLICE.*

EVERYONE who has ever been a supervisor knows that people come in a variety of emotional states. No one set policy will work in every case especially in the matter of discipline. Most texts on supervision either belittle or ignore discipline yet it must exist in any functioning organization whether it is enforced by autocratic means, by democratic means, or is self enforced.

How for instance, should a school supervisor handle the teacher involved in a drunk driving charge, homosexuality, bad checks, hit and run, habitually tardy, failure to dress properly, brawling in a local night club, or dating a high school senior? This is obviously the time for the big-stick[36] which the school supervisor should always carry in reserve. Texts on supervision tend to ignore this facet of supervision as though it didn't exist.[37]

In a police department, the supervisor has little choice except to investigate thoroughly and take fair action as provided by regulations.

In every case of disciplinary action, the supervisor must insure a fair and complete investigation and he must stand ready to take such action as provided by regulations to include testimony under oath if necessary, regardless of personal friendship or feelings.[38]

There is another supervisory technique or quality which the author feels has been greatly neglected and that is the manner of speaking from supervisor to subordinate.

Oscar Olander remarks that a modern author has said: "Every time you speak you touch someone with your voice."[39] No where is this more important than in the supervisor's tone and manner to his subordinates.

Roethlisberger says that there are many words (that) not only communicate information but convey sentiments as well.[40] It is here that a supervisor must not talk down or talk over his subordinates. It is the situation and not the words we want to understand.[41]

Two other supervisory qualities almost completely ignored except in military and police publications are that a leader should look like a leader and that a supervisor should set the example. In every military manual on leadership and in most police manuals or regulations, the supervisor is expected to set the example. Field Manual 22-100 states: "Your appearance and conduct have an important influence on your men."[42] Every police department has its regulations for the wearing of the uniform. Most large departments have a set time for inspection of patrolmen by supervisors prior to going on duty.[43]

Here is a field which the author feels should be further elaborated on in the field of school supervision. It is difficult to see how an unshaven, unpressed supervisor could command much respect from anyone regardless of how democratic or talented he might be.

There is one vital truth which every supervisor should know and never forget whether he is supervising a precinct on the dog-watch in a city police department, whether he is supervisor of a school, whether he is pushing a pipe line gang in the oil fields, or whether he commands a battle group in contact with the enemy. It is this: "A firm hold at the beginning pays ten-fold the dividend of a timid approach, followed by a show of firmness later on."[44]

In this concept, the supervisor should never tolerate rumor mongering, cliques, pressure groups, or any form of dishonesty or chicanery from any person or persons, whether superior or subordinate.[45]

The author has included two annexes submitted by A. F. Broadstatler, Director of the School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University, for the reader's interest and self-testing in Supervisory Employee Relations and in what subordinates expect from supervisors. In these two annexes lie all the truths of supervision.

ANNEX I[46]

Rate yourself on your employee relations attitudes and methods by answering each question *Yes or No.* The final rating is valuable only if you are absolutely honest with yourself in answering each question.

Self-Rating Test for Supervisory Employee Relations

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

1. Do you *always* listen to both sides of an employee controversy before making a decision? _____
2. Do you try to discover the causes underlying an employee failure before taking action? _____
3. Do you discuss an employee's shortcomings with him *well in*

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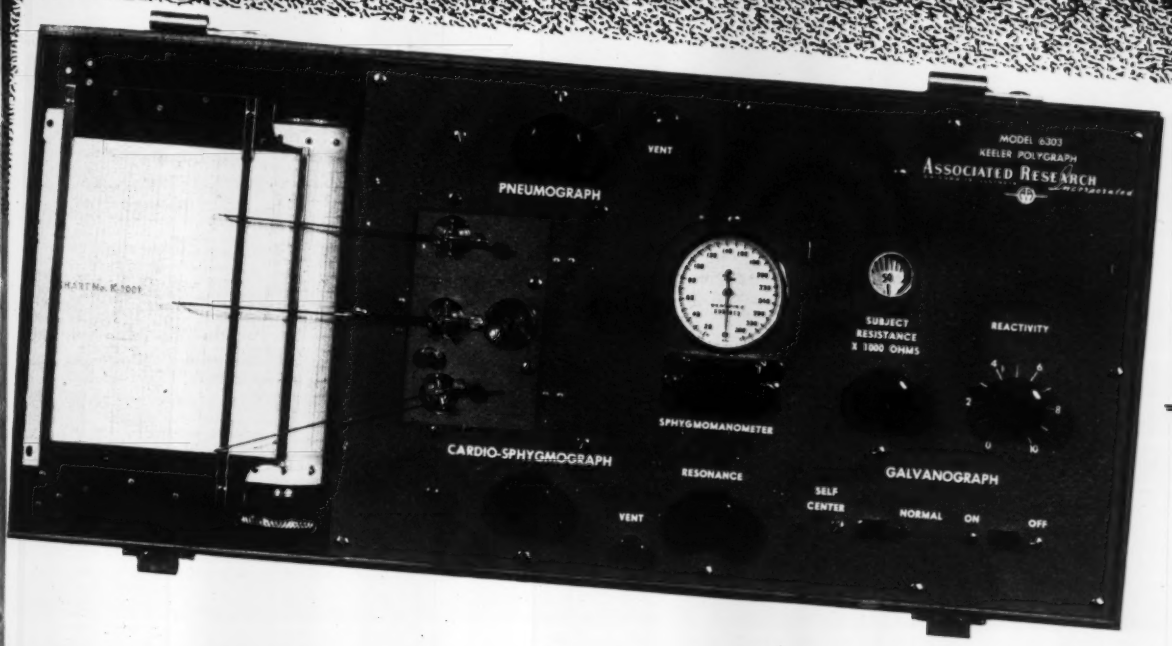

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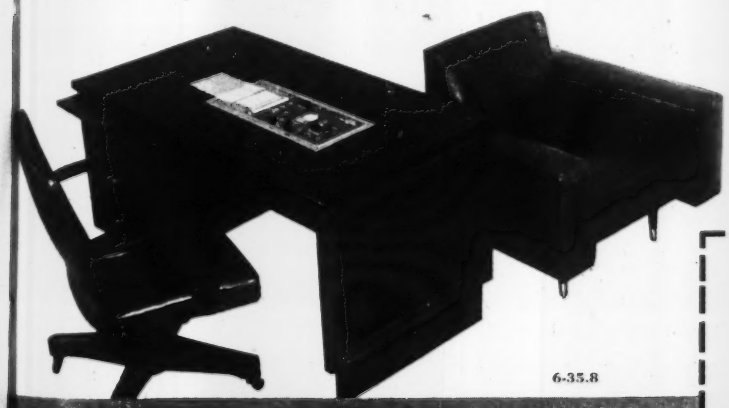

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advance of making a final decision? _____

4. Can you approach an employee relations problem without irritation or anger? _____
5. Do you believe in giving *all* faulty employees a second chance? _____
6. Have you ever admitted to an employee that *you* made a mistake or an incorrect decision? _____
7. Have you gone six months *without* arguing with an employee? _____
8. Have you gone six months *without* "bawling out" an employee? _____
9. If you dislike an employee, do you avoid showing that dislike? _____
10. Do you try to transfer employees who fail on one of your jobs? _____
11. Do you permit the transferred employee to pass on to the new supervisor without giving the employee a "black eye"? _____
12. Do you praise your employees when they do good work? _____
13. Do you keep a record of an employee's good points and good performances? _____
14. Do you have complete confidence in your employees? _____
15. Do you get along with little reprimanding of employees? _____
16. When you reprimand an employee, do you *always* do it privately? _____
17. If an employee objects to one of your decisions, do you recommend that he appeal the decision to your superior? _____
18. Do you expect your superior to "let you down" when you are in the wrong? _____
19. Do you always keep your temper when dealing with employees? _____
20. Do you *fully* and *always* discuss employee faults and failings with individual employees? _____
21. Do you *actually* treat all employees alike? _____
22. Do you apply all policies in exactly the same way to all your employees? _____
23. Can you supervise your work unit without making a lot of petty rules for employees? _____
24. Have you done anything constructive for the working comfort of your employees during the past year? _____
25. Do you teach safety practices to your employees? _____
26. Are you inclined to allow employees considerable latitude regarding tardiness, sick leave, and annual leave? _____
27. Are you sure you never "freeze up" when an employee brings an irritating personal problem to you? _____
28. Are you sure you are not "pressure-preoccupied" (thinking about other work problems) when an employee tries to discuss his difficulties with you? _____
29. Do you promptly inform all your employees of all matters which directly or indirectly concern them? _____
30. Do you permit a "grapevine" to operate without resentment on your part? _____
31. Do you realize that "riding" an employee can develop nervous ailments in the employee? _____
32. Do you believe in letting the employees freely express themselves, even when they "gripe"? _____
33. Do you render *prompt* decisions on employee requests, complaints, and problems? _____
34. Do you *always* keep your word in dealing with employees? _____
35. Do you avoid making policies on an individual basis? _____
36. Have you definitely taken an employee's part at least *twice* in the past year? _____
37. Do you believe that the end *does not* justify the means used to reach that end? _____
38. Do you honestly believe that an employee should not be judged by a single incident or situation? _____
39. Can you honestly say that you have not "talked an employee out of" some situation during the past six months (that is, "fed him a line")? _____
40. Can you truly say that you have not criticized any of your superiors in front of one of your subordinates during the past year? _____
41. Do you believe that your employees tend to imitate your attitudes and practices? _____
42. Do you try to relieve job monotony among your employees? _____
43. Do you encourage your employees to make suggestions for improvement? _____
44. Do you contact all employees in your work unit at least twice each working day? _____
45. Do your daily contacts with your employees amount to *more than* merely a greeting? _____
46. Do you try to issue "orders" so that they are really requests for cooperation? _____
47. Have you explained clearly to each of your employees *how* his work should be done? _____
48. Can you repeat such an explanation without becoming irritated? _____
49. Do you always have time to train a new employee properly? _____
50. Do you carefully consider the qualities of each eligible employee before making a provisional promotion? _____

To score, total the number of *Yes* answers and multiply by 2.

86 to 100—Too good to be true. You have probably rated yourself too generously.

80 to 85 —Exceptional. Few people have so well-balanced a working attitude toward human relations. You should be unusually successful in handling employees and in preventing the development of employee relations problems.

70 to 79 —Excellent. You should have especially good employee relations in your work unit.

60 to 69 —Good. But your attitudes and methods could stand improvement in order to develop better employee relations with those you supervise.

50 to 59 —Marginal. You undoubtedly have considerable employee relations trouble which could be avoided if you would change your attitudes and methods.

49 and below —Very poor. You may have trouble demonstrating that you are capable of supervising human beings. Most of your employee trouble is of your own making. You need intensive training in the field of employee relations.

ANNEX II[47]

WHAT DO SUBORDINATES EXPECT FROM SUPERVISORS

Subordinates expect or a least want the following from their supervisors:

- Leadership—courage, modesty, seriousness, tolerance, sense of humor.
- Clear concise orders, instructions, and directions.
- Assistance and coaching.
- Understanding and willingness to listen to problems and troubles.
- Loyalty to department and to subordinate—sincere interest in subordinates.
- Ability and knowledge of police work and supervisory methods.
- Criticism or commendation when due.
- Fairness, impartiality, emotional maturity and balance.

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36 From a lecture by Dr. Donnelly, Fitchburg State Teachers College, Fitchburg, Massachusetts.

37 The author can find no reference to disciplinary action in supervisory texts except those dealing with police functions or the military.

38 Policy File, San Antonio Police Department.

39 Oscar Olander as quoted in Perkins'

Elements of Police Service, p. 81.

[40] *Management and Morale*, p. 107.

[41] *Ibid*, p. 96.

[42] FM 22-100, p. 17.

[43] Policy Letter, San Antonio Police Department.

[44] *Armed Forces Officer*, p. 153.

[45] Lesson Plan, *Leadership*.

[46] Submitted through the courtesy of A. F. Broadstatler, Director, School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University.

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Wire Tapping in England

By Francis C. Sullivan

The past year has seen the issue of wire-tapping become a national issue in England. For many years wire tapping had been conducted by the police authorities on the personal authority of the Home Secretary in cases involving the national security, major crimes and customs frauds. In general, however, the interception of telephone conversations is prohibited.

The case that provided the issue was essentially a very simple one. Upon the death of a woman under circumstances deemed to be suspicious, the coroner requested that the police conduct an investigation, and in the course of this investigation they suggested to a woman that she allow them to listen to a telephone conversation between herself and the doctor of the deceased woman. The police then listened to the conversation at a switchboard in her shop while the woman used an extension and the conversation was taken down in shorthand. No criminal proceedings were instituted as a result of the investigation, but the Disciplinary Committee of the General Medical Council began disciplinary proceedings against the doctor for improper association and adultery with the deceased patient. In preparing for the disciplinary proceedings, an attorney for the Committee learned of the intercepted conversation and issued a subpoena to the police for the production of the transcript of the conversation. The Home Secretary declined to claim a privilege for the transcript and allowed it to be produced before the General Medical Council which resulted in public disclosure of the contents of the telephone conversation.

Immediately the newspapers created a furor over this case and public opinion was aroused. This led in turn to a debate in the House of Commons and a motion to censure Mr. R. A. Butler, the Home Secretary, for his handling of the case was ultimately defeated by a relatively narrow margin of less than one hundred votes.

As a result of the controversy caused by this case a committee has been created to consider the entire problem and to make appropriate recommendations.

Address: Professor Francis Sullivan, School of Law, Loyola University, 41 East Pearson St., Chicago 11, Illinois.

Two problems are raised as a result of this case. First, the nature and extent of the right of the police to intercept telephone conversations. It is likely that the police will be limited to the traditional rule that wire tapping may take place only in serious cases and then only with the specific authority of the Home Secretary. Methods such as that used in the instant case will in all probability be banned.

The second problem raised is the matter of disclosure of the contents of intercepted conversations. It would not be surprizing if this case causes a limitation upon the dissemination of intercepted information to government agencies only. Such a restriction might be imposed either by statute or regulation issued by the Home Secretary, and this would seem to be a desirable solution. If the investigative method is preserved for police use and the results are available for use in the courts where necessary, there can be little objection to the probition of the use of such information by semi-official bodies such as the General Medical Council. It is hoped that the unfortunate public outcry and fear will not lead to unduly restrictive regulations on the investigative freedom of the police.

***

WHAT ABOUT ARSON?

Among the very oldest crimes is that of arson. This recognition of the destruction which may result from fire improperly used dates at least to the time of the Romans. The results of accidental fires are evidenced by the conflagrations in Rome in A.D. 64, London in 1666, Chicago in 1871, San Francisco in 1906, and Tokyo in 1923, all of which resulted in great loss of life and enormous loss to property.

The use of fire as a criminal weapon has always been considered to be a particularly vicious act, one which could be equally dangerous to life as to property. In early England, the felony of arson was defined as the wilful and malicious burning of the dwelling house and adjacent buildings of another. It is noteworthy that the earliest punishment for arson was the burning of the criminal himself. At this early period in English law, the

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dwelling house of a man constituted the means of preserving his life and, for the great majority of people, constituted the most important of all property. Because of this, the focus of arson has been upon the dwelling house rather than upon other buildings, and the crime is known as one against property.

Over the years the tendency has been to expand the scope of arson to embrace almost all property, but in many states today arson is restricted to the burning of dwellings and the burning of other buildings is considered to be a lesser crime. This is rather an unreasonable attitude today when it is considered that buildings such as schools, churches, theaters and office buildings are of much greater value and of much greater danger to human life if burned. It might also be added that the temptation to burn a residence today is not as great as that involved in the other buildings described.

The Model Arson Law proposed by the National Board of Fire Underwriters many years ago has been adopted by many states either in whole or in part and has set the trend for many other modern statutes. This act divides arson into three degrees depending upon the nature of the property burned. First degree arson, under this scheme, consists of the burning of dwellings and buildings belonging to or adjacent thereto and is punished by imprisonment for not less than two and not more than twenty years. Second degree arson is concerned with buildings other than dwellings and is punished by imprisonment for not less than one nor more than ten years. The burning of personal property of a value of more than twenty-five dollars is denoted as third degree arson and punished by imprisonment for not less than one nor more than three years. Burning of property to defraud insurers is made a separate crime applicable to all property regardless of ownership and is punished by imprisonment for not less than one nor more than five years.

This type of statute is quite different from that exemplified by the New York statute. In New York and those states following its lead, the degrees of arson are determined both by class of property burned and the danger to life involved in the particular burning. Hence, arson in the first degree consists of the burning in the night time of dwellings and other structures in which there is, at the time, a human being. Arson in the second degree consists in the burning in the day time of any structure in which there is, at the time, a human being; the burning in the night time of a dwelling in which there is, at the time, no human being; the burning in the night time of a building adjoining an inhabited building which endangers the occupied building; the burning in the night time of any structure normally occupied in the night time by a human being, although no person is within the structure at the time; and the burning of any vehicle or building with intent to defraud the insurer. Arson in the third

degree includes all burnings of vessels and buildings not otherwise covered and all personal property of a value of more than twenty-five dollars. The punishment for arson in New York is much more severe than under the Model Arson Law. First degree arson is punished by imprisonment for not more than forty years; second degree arson by imprisonment for not more than twenty-five years; and third degree arson by imprisonment for not more than fifteen years.

Still a third type of statute is in force in a limited number of states. Under the Louisiana Criminal Code, for instance, danger to human life determines the seriousness of a particular burning. Aggravated arson, punishable by imprisonment for not less that two nor more than twenty years, consists of "the intentional damaging by any explosive substance or the setting fire to any structure, water craft or movable, wherein it is foreseeable that human life might be endangered." Simple arson is the intentional burning of any property of another not constituting aggravated arson and is punishable by fine and imprisonment according to the amount of damage done. Burning any property of another or of the actor with intent to defraud is a separate crime punishable by imprisonment for not more than five years and/or a fine.

In examining the arson statutes in effect throughout the United States one is immediately struck with the varying theories adopted by the different states. It is apparent that danger to human life is now uppermost in the minds of legislators throughout the country. It is questionable, however, whether this concern has been adequately expressed in the various statutes. It is thought that the greatest danger to human life is in the burning of a dwelling house, broadly defined to include hotels, apartment buildings, rooming houses or any other structure wherein a person normally sleeps. In the light of modern conditions this seems to be too narrow a concept. As pointed out above the danger to human life is equally as great in the burning of any building normally occupied by large numbers of people, such as schools, churches, offices, factories and the like. In view of this fact it would seem that first degree arson, or the crime of arson in those states not having degrees of the crime, should be expanded to include any building or structure normally occupied by human beings. The requirement that the building be actually occupied at the time of the burning seems to be of little value since the presence or absence of occupants is more likely accidental than not. Likewise the distinction between the commission of the crime at night and during the day appears to be an arbitrary one. The very nature of the crime dictates that commission will occur more often at night, and if it is considered that the danger to human life is greater at night, as of course it is, the wide scope of penalty may be used to impose a more severe penalty for arson committed during the night time.

The common law distinction followed by some states that the property must be within the possession of another seems to have little merit. The danger to human life can be just as great where one burns property within his own possession, and the penalty should be equally as severe as when the property is possessed by another. Ownership of the property, as distinguished from possession, should not be a factor of any importance.

One of the most puzzling features of the modern arson statute is the vast difference in penalty between the first flame and the last step of preparation to burn a building. Most states either by statute or case decision have held that arson is committed when there is any scorching of the wood. When this occurs the criminal under most statutes is subject to imprisonment for a term up to twenty years. If the criminal should be apprehended with a lighted match in his hand in the act of applying the match to a part of the building prepared with gasoline or some other accellerant, however, he will be subject in most states to a penalty of imprisonment for not more than two years or a fine of not more than one thousand dollars. This appears to be a ridiculous result not justified by any rational explanation. The Model Arson Law and most modern statutes define an attempt to commit arson as "the placing or distributing of any flammable, explosive or combustible material or substance, or any device" in or about any building with the intent to eventually set fire to the property. This is a very broad attempt provision and should cover all of the usual situations where arson is attempted. The disparity of punishment, however, takes the teeth out of this provision. Considering the fact that the difference between the attempt and the completed crime is one of pure accident in the usual case the most logical solution is to impose the same penalty for the attempt as for the completed crime, with the difference between the two acts being reflected only as a consideration in the fixing of the specific punishment.

Arson is one of the most difficult crimes in which to obtain a conviction because of the fact that the fire itself generally destroys much or all of the evidence. There are, however, a significant number of convictions obtained through the efforts of intelligent and hard-working investigators making the fullest possible use of modern scientific investigative aids together with the traditional methods of investigation. Their efforts should not be ignored or be made less effective by statutes which do not accord with the facts. Many states are now in the process of reconsidering their arson statutes with a view to modernization and the American Law Institute has drafted a series of provisions for possible inclusion in its Model Penal Code. The view of the men most concerned with these provisions should be made known to the proper authorities in order that the best possible statutes may result. In this connection any suggestions or recommendations forwarded to the editor of this section will be reported here and also made known to the American Law Institute and the legislative committees concerned. ★★★

WANT AD: "Police Chief Needed to Work in Department Eight Hours a Day to Replace One Who Didn't."

The Police System of Thinking

By Lt. Colonel William A. Wiltberger

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Colonel Wiltberger entered police service in 1920 as a regular patrolman serving under the famous Police Chief, the late August Vollmer, in the Police Department of Berkeley, California. He subsequently became a staff member of the Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research under the noted Dr. Herman Adler, followed by appointment as Chief of Police, Evanston, Illinois in 1925 at the age of 27. He subsequently became Director of Public Safety at St. Petersburg, Florida. He was Director of the Police School at San Jose State College from 1934 to 1942 and pioneered in organizing and directing the first California centralized in-service peace officer training program in 1937 and 1938.*

Additional civilian activities included service as Police Consultant, Fresno, California; Security Assistant, U. S. Atomic Energy Commission, Hanford Operations Office, Richland, Washington; and Distinguished Visiting Professor, School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University. He received the A.B. and M.A. degrees at the University of California. He is a life member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the Peace Officers Association of the State of California and an active member of the New Mexico Sheriffs and Police Association. Colonel Wiltberger is a veteran of World Wars I, II and the Korean Engagement, serving in the U. S. Air Force Intelligence and later as a Provost Marshal; he was Chief of Counter Intelligence Branch, U. S. Air Intelligence School, Base Provost Marshal and Commander Air Police Squadron, among other important military assignments. He is now retired permanently and resides at Albuquerque, New Mexico. He organized and presided over an exhibit at the 1958 Annual Convention of the IACP at Miami Beach, Florida, of universities and colleges offering undergraduate and graduate programs in police science and administration.

In this series of two articles, Colonel Wiltberger has conceived a new and useful frame of reference, a new vehicle within which to consider police problems and objectives, and the specifications for a successful approach to them.

WHEN we reach that golden age of retirement, there is a natural tendency to review our professional experiences and observations, for the purpose of seeking time tested truths. Or to determine if we have been fully aware of the distinction between the "forest and the trees" of our daily activities. In such retrospection, I have been intrigued by the observation of a police concept, which I have called—*The Police System of Thinking*. It appears to be a fundamental consideration in the true art of police work. This idea is in reality nothing new to the profession, but it is important that we be fully aware that it is the dynamic intellectual content of the police system. My recent discussions of this concept intrigued some other experienced police officials, resulting in the request for this presentation in the belief that it might be of some interest.

We should first consider our major police problems, which for the purpose of this discussion, we will classify as: major crimes, vice, traffic, juvenile delinquency, and the general service problems. In referring to these problems, we should be cognizant not only of their historical growth, extent, nature, and effects, but also the complex underlying conditions and related environmental factors; that our problems are primarily concerned with people, in a changing social environment.

Next, we must be aware of the police objectives, which may be classified in the order of their importance, as: preservation of the peace; prevention of crime, delinquency and accidents; protection of life and property; enforcement of laws and regulations; and the collection and maintenance of police information and intelligence. These are the objectives or goals we strive for in the solution or control of our major police problems.

I find it most difficult to properly define this concept of the police system of thinking at this time and in the initial presentation of the idea. The concept is complex in nature and contains many undetermined and intangible aspects. I have made the attempt, however, to define the idea by a consolidation of the several definitions taken from Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. It is hoped that others may contribute to a better definition of this concept. Thus, the police system of thinking is defined as:

"The judgement or mode of thinking used by the police profession to rationally apply all practical knowledge, techideas, doctrines, principles, laws, facts, conditions, customs, ethics, policies, technology, methods and procedures in a rational dependence or police operational system; and (b) organize and administer diverse units, personnel, training, and public relations into an integrated whole, which will function or operate in unison, in obedience to controls and self discipline, for the solution to or control of police problems, in accordance with police objectives."

Or, an oversimplified definition might be as follows:

"The methodical intellectual procedures used by the police profession to: (a) methodically organize a complex set of niques and methods to an evaluation of police problems,

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and the application of effective police systems to the solution or control of these problems, according to police objectives."

Throughout the growth of the police profession, a particular police system of thinking has been developed, which has been used by the profession in the solution or control of the police problems existing at that time and place. This method of thinking has been the intellectual content of the police system, since its beginning. The practical optimum of an effective police system of thinking may be found in the successful police leaders of each period. Successful solutions and control of police problems were achieved by such leaders as the result of a proper evaluation of the basic situations and the effective application of police concepts, doctrines and technology of their time, according to police objectives. It was also the skillful organization, administration, public relations, and the indoctrination of their personnel in the police system of thinking, that achieved the successful solution of the police problems in their community. All members of the police profession have achieved improved solutions or control of their immediate problems in proportion to the quality of their acquired police knowledge and system of thinking. We should also observe that there is a certain typical system of thinking by all experienced professional policemen. In fact, as we examine this concept further, we will see that there is a system of thinking characteristic to each of the other professions. Complex ideas, doctrines, principles, facts, customs, ethics, technology and methods in all of the professions have been organized into a rational dependence, or an integral whole, and established as a dynamic system of thinking in each profession.

We are cognizant of the fact that no profession exists in a vacuum. There is an interdependence of professional systems of thinking, basic and applied knowledge, and the physical and social environment of a particular time and place. There is a constant borrowing of ideas, technology, and methods by the professions and the vocations from each other. This borrowing, however, requires an adaptation to each professional system of thinking. The continuous integration of ideas and techniques into the police field, the improvement of doctrines and methods, changing environmental conditions, ways of life, and technology of an era, result in an improved police system of thinking. These changing conditions and the advancement of knowledge also produce new and more complex problems for each period. They challenge the professional system of thinking, which subsequently must discover an effective solution of these situations. The interdependence of the various professions and related basic knowledge is currently reflected in our modern educational concepts, in institutions of higher learning, by the requirement that all students must now take certain courses in the basic arts and sciences before professional specialization is permitted.

There is a continuing cycle of cause and effect; of new problems and new solutions; and of changing conditions which require new rules, techniques and methods. In substance, police ideas or concepts are developed by individuals for the improved solution of problems, based upon an evaluation of the conditions underlying the situation. If the application of the concept is practical and successful then it will naturally be repeatedly applied to the same pattern of conditions in a problem. It then becomes a doctrine, rule, technique, method or procedure which is a prescribed system, and is taught in that department. Such doctrines, techniques or methods may be accepted widely by other police departments. On the other hand, some departments may accept other doctrines or methods based upon different conditions in the solution of their problems, and with comparable results from such applications. Then again, the majority may accept a basic doctrine but apply varying techniques or methods, due to the differing conditions of their problems. Thus, we may properly have divergent but effective systems in a number of departments, based upon the conditions of time and place. But, if one important element of the conditions or problem change, the application of the same doctrine, technique or method may result in failure. Under a competent police system of thinking, we determine that the pattern of conditions or problems are the same before applying the prescribed methods. If the conditions of a situation are different, then we must re-evaluate these changes and apply the appropriate police systems. It is the police system of thinking that is more pertinent to success than is the blind worship of any particular police concept, doctrine or method.

History records adequate evidence that we cannot be certain of any unchanging police rules, techniques, methods or even doctrines, which can always be applied to all conditions, times or places. We find instances of experienced persons in all professions who worship a particular doctrine, rule or method in their field. Many failures have resulted from this type of thinking. These particular people worship a certain rule blindly, and always apply it under the mistaken belief that situation patterns involving people never change. It is true that there are certain patterns which are persistent, but we cannot be certain that the pattern of a situation will not change. It is well to re-examine the process used in formulating police systems. A police problem exists, and a police official studies all the conditions basic to the problem. After evaluating these conditions, he selects a solution from existing systems. He may develop a new idea or concept. If the new system is repeatedly successful when applied to the same conditions, it becomes the accepted system. The system will always be effective as long as the same conditions for which it was developed prevail. But when basic situations change, the application of the same system will fail.

The method of the police system of thinking seems rather self-evident and very simple to the experienced

policemen. It is in this area, however, that many failures have occurred. In fact, many of us have made this type of error in the early development of our police system of thinking. I know I made such errors which resulted in some serious failures. For example, I recall when I was a very young chief of police, and entered the police department of a university town from the outside. There was a potential student disturbance in the making, following the winning of a football championship by the university team. The department had handled these traditional affairs before, and I had had similar experience as a police officer in another community. But the police intelligence of the problem and my evaluation of all the elements in this particular situation proved inadequate. This pattern contained different elements. Yet the previous doctrines and methods used in the past were applied. The result was a serious riot by several thousand students and local town hoodlums. It took the use of force and assistance of additional police from the nearby metropolitan police to bring the situation under control.

A chief of police has no excuse when a riot occurs, and it had better not happen a second time. I had failed to properly apply the police system of thinking. So, I improved our police intelligence and made a very thorough evaluation of all the basic elements of the problem. New plans were made for the application of other police systems and the development of several new concepts. The next year the university team won another conference football championship and the same potential riot was threatened. The revised operational plan was applied and the situation was changed into one of the greatest normal victory celebrations ever held. By exploiting the situation with a comprehensive public relations program, a student tradition of riots was transferred to a tradition of non-riotous celebrations at this university for many years. Thus a proper application of the police system of thinking resulted in a successful solution of the problem.

I would like to use several other illustrations, familiar to all members of the profession. For example, the use of the automobile by the beat patrolman. Over forty years ago, one of the pioneers in the profession, the late August Vollmer, the famous police chief of Berkeley, California, developed a concept of having each beat patrolman use an automobile. Its use did not change the function of the beat patrolman. The auto was additional equipment to give mobility to the patrolman as required. It also provided an economy of force because the patrolmen could cover larger beats effectively in this university residential town. Vollmer evaluated all of the elements in the situation, the police doctrines and methods required, the nature of the police problems and the characteristics of the community. He applied this concept. It was proved practical and effective for that city. It soon became a permanent system in that department. Some other police officials ridiculed this new system, because they worshipped the traditional foot patrol method. Many other police officials evaluated their conditions and problems and established the same auto patrol method in their system. This practice gradually gained wider acceptance in the profession.

Some police officials evaluated their problems, applied the doctrine but developed a method of two patrolmen in the car, based on the different conditions in their cities. Today we find all departments using the auto patrol, at least on some of the patrol beats. Some officials use one man cars, while others use the two men in a car. In many departments you will observe the use of both the one man car, two men in a car, and even some foot patrol, all in the same department but based on the varying conditions of time and place in that particular city. We occasionally hear an argument among some policemen of one man cars versus two men cars for all cities, times and places. These are doctrine worshipers, who believe that you can apply one system to every condition or that conditions in cities do not differ. The police officials, who have evaluated the conditions and problems of their city and determined the best system for their community, are using a competent system of thinking. August Vollmer once stated the concept very well, "Use one man in a car all you can, use two men in a car when you must. You may have to use foot patrol in some situations." Thus you evaluate the situation and apply the system which you can or must use to effectively solve the problems in your particular city. This is the police system of thinking.

The police system of thinking also requires an understanding of the basic arts and sciences which are related to police work. These include the broad systems of basic and related applied knowledge. In our system of thinking we have utilized many complex ideas, doctrines, principles, laws, facts, customs, ethics and technology from these basic and applied fields of knowledge. These systems of knowledge are applied not only to the police organizational, administrative and operational systems, but also to the analysis of local conditions and police problems. In the past, the great majority of our successful professional police learned much of this related basic and applied knowledge through individual study, special courses, situational experiences, general reading, professional advice and conferences. Their daily work problems served to guide them in the essential related knowledge that was required. Today, the professional police education programs in colleges and universities provide a more formal opportunity to obtain an organized body of knowledge in the arts and sciences related to police work. Regardless of how this understanding of related knowledge was achieved, it has been an important consideration in the police system of thinking.

EDITOR'S NOTE: The second in this interesting series of two articles by Lt. Colonel Wiltberger will appear in the next issue of POLICE. ★★★

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POLYGRAPH and INTERROGATION

Interviews, Interrogations and Use of the Polygraph

By Carroll S. Price

USE OF THE POLYGRAPH EARLY IN THE INVESTIGATION

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the final article in a series of five presented by POLICE concerned with successful techniques in the INTERVIEW AND INTERROGATION OF SUSPECTS, COMPLAINANTS AND WITNESSES. The fourth article appeared in the previous issue of the Journal.*

THE Polygraph, if it is to be used, should be brought into play early in the course of the interrogation of suspects or witnesses. In order to obtain conclusive test charts the subject must be in as good mental and physical condition as possible. Subjects who have been questioned for extended periods, are physically exhausted, or are very disturbed mentally, do not as a rule give clear charts. It is much better to let these subjects rest before attempting Polygraph tests. Polygraph tests should not be used as a "last resort" after all other methods have failed to get an admission or when the investigator has exhausted himself questioning the subject.

Planning Test Questions

The examiner prepares the test questions on the basis of information he obtains from the investigator. General facts, theories, and suspicions are not enough; the examiner needs detailed, verified facts. Whenever possible the investigator should inform the examiner of the unpublicized facts of the offense, particularly those known only to the victim, the offender, and the investigator. He should inform the examiner of:

1. Specific articles or exact amounts of money stolen.
2. Peculiar aspects of the offense or any strange or obscene act committed at the scene.
3. The exact time (when known) the offense occurred.
4. Known facts about a suspect's actions or movements.
5. Facts indicating a connection between suspects, victims and witnesses, especially when they deny any connection.
6. Exact type of firearm, weapon, or tool used.
7. Results of laboratory tests.

The questions must be short and simple, and clear to the subject. They must require only a "yes" or "no" answer. They must not contain any words or expressions that the person will not understand or that might need a qualifying answer.

The officer or investigator conducting the investigation should accompany the subject (s) to the place where the test is given and bring all the information he has about the case. This will give the operator the complete picture of the facts surrounding the case so that he can frame intelligent questions for the test and so that he will have background material on the subject for irrelevant questions. The operator is alone with the subject during the time the actual test is in progress and he will not be able to rely on the knowledge and memory of the investigator during this time unless he is furnished with these facts beforehand. It is important that the operator have as much information about the case as possible so that he may recognize the importance of any information given to him by the subject and its relation to the case under investigation.

Preparation for the Test

The test must be given in a quiet, private place. A soundproof room is best, but a regular interrogation room or other quiet, private room can be used in an emergency.

The room must not contain wall ornaments, pictures,

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or unusual furnishings that will distract attention.

A Polygraph examination room is available at General Headquarters, Missouri State Highway Patrol in Jefferson City. It is constructed of soundproofing material and has an observation room with a one-way mirror. This permits the investigator to see and hear the actual test without being seen or heard. Missouri police agencies have been asked to take advantage of the facilities available at Jefferson City rather than ask that the Polygraph be brought out to another locality for the test. In certain cases where there are a large number of subjects to be examined and there is an appreciable distance involved, the Polygraph can be transported to the area and examinations conducted provided adequate facilities can be obtained.

Test Procedures

The exact procedure varies slightly with the person tested and the facts of each case, but two main techniques are used; the *general question* test and the *peak of tension* test.

The general question test consists of a series of relevant (concerning the offense) and irrelevant (not concerning the offense) questions asked in a planned order. The relevant questions are asked in order to obtain a specific response. The irrelevant questions are asked to give the subject relief after pertinent questions and to establish a normal tracing on the test chart. The questions are so arranged that a specific reaction to a relevant question can be compared with a normal tracing made during the answering of an irrelevant question. The reaction may be strong enough to indicate that the subject either did not tell the truth or that he was unduly disturbed by the question. In the general question test, the subject usually does not know beforehand what questions are to be asked. Repeat tests are used.

The second type of test depends on building up a peak of tension (emotional disturbance). The subject is usually told beforehand the questions that are to be asked. The series contain one question about a specific detail of the offense. The test chart of a subject who is not telling the truth or who is unduly disturbed usually shows a rise in the tracing up to the relevant question (peak of tension) and a decline thereafter. The rise is due to the fact that the subject dreads the question to which he knows he is going to lie. The decline is caused by the relief of knowing that the dreaded question is past. The peak of tension test works best if the examiner knows some unpublicized details of the offense. It is also used when the examiner is probing for a weakness in the subject's testimony. Variations of this test (such as a card control test) are used as preliminary tests to ascertain if a person is capable of giving a response which can be recognized.

Interpretation of Test Charts

Test charts are interpreted only by the examiner who conducted the test.

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Testing Non-English Speaking Persons

When a person who does not speak or understand English is to be tested, it is necessary to use an interpreter. The interpreter must be well trained in both English and the native language and must be familiar with the common expression of both languages so that his translation will be accurate, fluent, and in the proper idiom. He should be experienced in investigative interrogation.

Follow-up Interview

A period of skillful questioning usually follows every lie detector test. The examiner uses questioning techniques similar to those used by the investigator. The examiner should select an approach before the test starts. This selection should be based on the information furnished by the investigator and on the subject's background. As the test progresses, the examiner may modify or change his planned approach according to the results of the test and the effects it seems to be having on the person being tested. By the time the actual test ends, he should have clearly in mind the tactics he intends to use during the questioning period. The investigator who brought the subject to be tested and who is probably more familiar with the subject than the examiner, should stand by during the test and the interrogation in order to provide any additional information that might assist the examiner in selecting or modifying his questioning techniques.

Accuracy of Test and Rights of Subject Taking Test

The Polygraph is very accurate when used properly and can be relied upon in almost all cases to reveal whether a person is telling the truth or not. In a few instances an examination may result in a "no conclusion" opinion which can be caused by one or more of the following:

1. A non-reactor
2. A subject trying to "beat" the machine by not following instructions
3. A subject who has been physically abused or under the influence of drugs or alcohol
4. A subject who is actually in pain from an injury or disease

Before any person is subjected to a lie detector test, he must be informed of his legal rights against self-incrimination and self-degradation. No individual can be forced to take the test against his will. He or she must be cooperative, calm and quiet all during the test. Polygraph examinations can be given to juveniles with the consent of their parents or guardians.

Summary

The importance of having individuals employed by a police agency who are skilled in obtaining information through methods of interviewing and interrogating cannot be stressed too much. Since 80 to 90 per cent of an investigator's time is spent in talking to people, he should be equipped with some of the basic tools of his trade. A good interrogator should have a better than average intelligence, perseverance, alertness, a practical knowledge of human psychology and sociology, personal integrity and honesty, and a knowledge of the law which he is to enforce.

In preparing for an interview or interrogation the questioner must be familiar with the case, have background information regarding the subject he is going to talk to and arrange for the time and place of questioning with great care.

The questioner must be conscious of his attitude and demeanor as to how it will effect the individual to be questioned. First impressions are usually lasting impressions and care should be exercised in creating the correct first impression. The questioner's basic philosophy must be free of cynicism and prejudice in order for him to work effectively.

When conducting an interview it must be remembered that the interviewee is doing the questioner a favor by cooperating and he should be treated accordingly. The interview should be arranged at the convenience of the subject and a record of some type should be made of the discussion.

An interrogation is the formal questioning of a suspect. The ultimate goal is to obtain a confession from the guilty suspect and/or other pertinent information regarding the offense. The interrogation may entail using sympathetic, direct or indirect methods. When employing indirect or subterfuge methods certain precautions must be taken to avoid ruining the investigation completely.

The Polygraph or lie detector is a scientific aid to criminal interrogation. Through the proper use of this instrument much time and effort can be saved. The Polygraph detection of deception technique is a much more humane and reliable method of examining a suspect than some of the older methods. A person who is in normal health, both physically and mentally, can usually be examined by the Polygraph and an accurate conclusion as to his guilt or innocence can be reached. The Polygraph is not a substitute for adequate investigation but is a very valuable aid to the investigator in determining the truthfulness of the people who he encounters during his investigation. No one can be compelled to take the test against his will, but, the fact that, if he is innocent he should take the test to clear himself, should be emphasized.

There is no easy road to success in criminal investigation, but self study, self analysis and evaluation, and the resolution to improve one's self at every possible opportunity is essential. A good investigator should also be a good questioner and certainly this subject cannot be taught completely through formal education. Formal education is necessary, however, for a broad foundation to build on. From there on it takes practical application, constant observation of other questioners in action, and periodic retaining.

1961 SCHEDULE ANNOUNCED

Mr. Len Harrelson has just announced that the 1961 classes for training at the Keeler Polygraph Institute are to be scheduled as follows:

January 16	through February 24
April 17	through May 26
July 17	through August 25
September 18	through October 27

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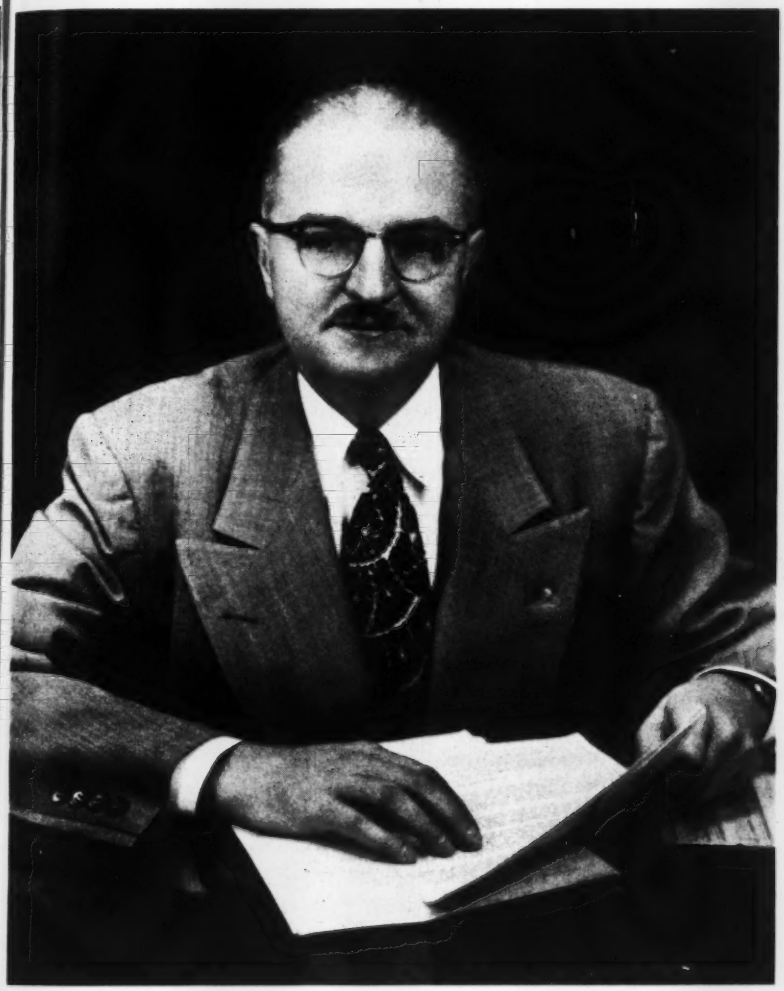


James F. Inman

1902 – 1959

By Leonard Harrelson

President and founder of Associated Research, Inc., Jim Inman was widely known in the lie detection profession for his untiring leadership in the development of the famous Keeler Polygraph.

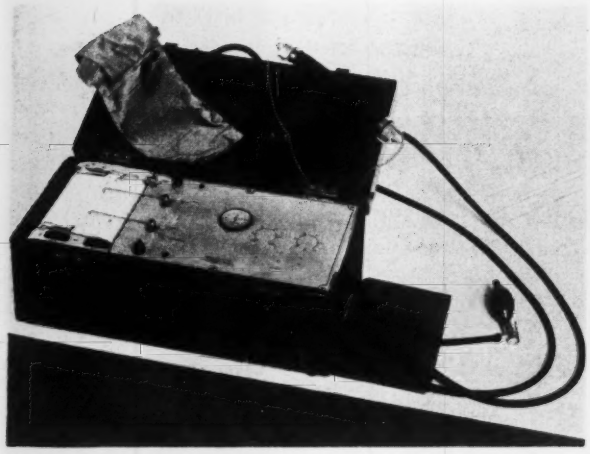
James F. Inman was born in Chicago on April 9, 1902. He was graduated from Francis Scott Key Grammar School in 1916 and Austin High School in 1920. He then enrolled in the School of Engineering at the University of Illinois.

While employed by the Western Electric Company, he was enrolled in their one-year college training course. After completing this comprehensive course, Jim entered the Methods Engineering Department of the company, and later was put in charge of temporary lighting for telephone exchanges for the United States. One year later he joined the Westburg Engineering Company of Chicago, representing the Western Electrical Instrument Corporation of Newark, New Jersey, and the Ward Leonard Electric Company of Mount Vernon, New York. Jim had been working for Westberg but a short time when, in 1926, he was married to Elizabeth Wolverton. They were inseparable from the moment they were married. Betty traveled extensively with Jim on his business trips. In 1928 their only child, Richard W. Inman, was born to Jim and Betty.

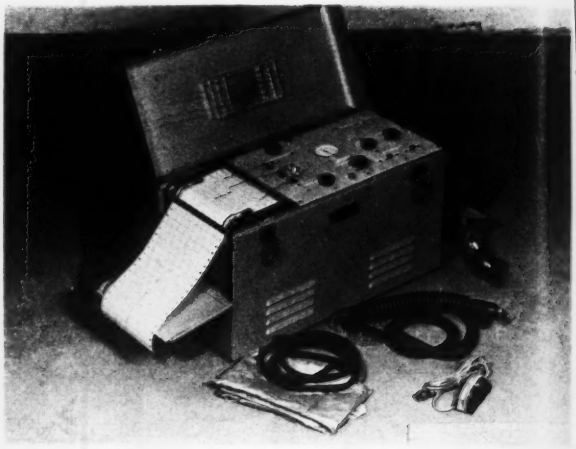
During the next twelve years of traveling Jim found time to continue his education with night courses in engineering, salesmanship, advertising, public relations and numerous other subjects. These enabled him to later become a registered professional electrical engineer and a senior member of the Institute of Radio Engineers. Following this, he founded the Metropolitan Radio Service Corporation, the first city-wide radio service organization in the Chicago area.

When he was assistant to the president of Illinois Testing Laboratory, the opportunity to purchase Chicago Meter Laboratory arose. Using this as a nucleus, Associated Research, Inc. was organized in 1936 to repair, test, calibrate and sell all types of indicating, recording and controlling electrical instruments.

Address: Leonard H. Harrelson, Leonarde Keeler, Inc., 341 E. Ohio St., Chicago 11, Illinois.



First Model 301 — Keeler Polygraph, 1938.



Most recent Model 6303 — Keeler Polygraph, 1960.

From this very modest beginning, the organization became well-known for its high-quality workmanship and, as a natural growth, began to build special testing equipment. Jim's background was instrumental in leading the late Leonarde Keeler to confer with him for expert guidance in the manufacture of the Keeler Polygraph. Through his engineering ability the first Model 302 Keeler Polygraph was manufactured by Associated Research in 1939. The history of the Keeler Polygraph since then has been one of constant development and improvement. In 1958, James F. Inman and his Staff at Associated Research, Inc. reached the present epitome in perfection with their Model 6303 Keeler Polygraph. Even more work is continuing, not only on the polygraph, but on every instrument manufactured by Associated Research, Inc. Having known Jim Inman, this effort to improve the old, and develop the new will always be present at Associated Research, Inc.

Jim Inman died December 18th, 1959 after several months of illness. His life was devoted to the concern of others. His death was a great loss to the business world and to many individuals who valued his friendship and advice very highly.

He was a member of a great many organizations, including The Chicago Rotary Club—Union League Club of Chicago; Instrument Society of America; Institute of Radio Engineers (Senior Member); National Society of Professional Engineers; Active Member of the Academy for Scientific Interrogation (and a member of the International Society for the Detection of Deception); Scottish Rite Valley of Chicago and Medinah Temple A.A.O.N.M.S. ★★★

RECENT KEELER GRADUATES

Graduates of the Keeler Polygraph Institute summer class are:

Standing left to right: John D. Irwin, Jr., Police Dept., Daytona Beach, Florida; James R. Burnes, Sheriff's Dept., Great Falls, Montana; Mark L. Cambre, Louisiana State Polic; William J. Yankee, Western Michigan Univ. Dept. of Psychology; Augustus O. Downing, Dukes Corp., New York; Charles L. Wood, Virginia State Police; George G. Matthews, Sheriff's Dept., Palm Beach, Florida.

Seated left to right; Ernest A. L'Meureaux, Key West, Florida; Orlester H. Mahoney, Kentucky State Police; Beryl Hettles, Sheriff's Dept., De Land, Florida; Dale E. Ellis, Sheriff's Dept., Palm Beach, Florida; Howard S. Wotring, Police Dept., Reno, Nevada.

Encouraging Compliance with Policies

By G. Douglas Gourley

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The problem of developing compliance with departmental policies is one of immediate concern to police chiefs and their command personel. This is the second in a series of two articles on this important subject by Professor Gourley, Head of the Department of Police Science and Administration at Los Angeles State College, and formerly Inspector of Police in the Los Angeles Police Department. The first article appeared in the previous issue of POLICE.*

SUPERVISION

PROBABLY no other single factor has as much influence upon the implementation of police policies as that of supervision! It's not what policemen are told—but what they accept and act on—that counts. What they accept and act on will be determined more by the relationship which exists between them and their supervisors than by any other factor. Supervisors must realize that in their relations with the policemen of today, they are dealing with intelligent and ambitious men who, as a rule, are anxous to do a good job. Supervision based largely upon fear will not work well with American policemen. The autocratic sergeant or lieutenant who guards his authority jealously and rules his men with an iron hand contributes much to poor discipline and morale. Policemen working under such supervisors usually respond by close cooperation among themselves against the supervisor, or by general group disintegration and lack of morale.

Policemen cannot be coerced into taking proper police action; not being under constant surveillance, they cannot be forced to see a traffic violation or a burglar entering a house. The successful "democratic" supervisor stimulates team work while still encouraging self-development and expression of individual officers. Instead of goading officers into performance by shouting and driving, the new approach is to stimulate them to work by means of leadership, training, example, and respect.

A supervisor should always set a good example for his men in his conduct as well as his appearance. Self-control is one of the most important qualities a supervisor must possess. To command men one must first learn to command oneself. The police supervisor who loses his temper over mistakes of his men, who bawls them out "publicly," or who indulges in sarcastic remarks, sacrifices some of his control over them; the supervisor who "flies off the handle" betrays his inability to supervise other men. When a police supervisor appears before his men, he is the center of their attention, and any improper appearance of his person, uniform, or equipment, will quickly be noticed. There is scarcely anything more destructive of discipline than the supervisor whose philosophy of life is based upon the principle of "Don't do as I do, do as I say."

Two of the best tools of supervision are commendations and condemnations. We all like to be well thought of, and to excel from time to time in one way or another. We will work very hard for a word of public praise. Most officers work better and more diligently when they are commended for the performance of good work. For most policemen, commendation acts as a tonic and spurs them on to greater effort. Many supervisors find it difficult to let their men know that a good job has been done. Some of them fear that praise will cause the men to relax and slow up, whereas the opposite is the usual result. One supervisor has advised "two pats on the back for one kick in the pants." It is true that too much praise loses its incentive value, but the danger in police departments is that too little praise will be given, rather than too much.

Commendation is usually most effective when given in public so that the entire group will know that good work has been recognized, while rebukes or condemnation should be given in private so that the officer's prestige and status in the group will not be lowered.

Good morale is maintained by supervisors being approachable. It is not intended to imply that supervisors should become intimate with their men. Undue familiarity should be avoided, but a police supervisor should have a sympathetic understanding of other people's points of view and problems, and should encourage, within limits, the confidences of his men. He cannot, however, be "one of the boys" or become too intimate, for by so doing he will soon lose all control over them.

A supervisor must be fair and impartial, but nevertheless firm. Policemen do not respect a supervisor who lets them "get away" with derelictions. They do not want coddling, laxity, or indifference; what they do want is to know what is expected of them and how they are getting along. They also desire, and have a right to expect, that their supervisors will be fair, impartial, and consistent; that they will not have favorites or "fair-haired boys." Policemen like a sergeant or lieutenant who treats them all equally, tells them what is expected of them, and lets them know "where they stand" at all times.

In carrying out departmental policies a police supervisor must often deal face to face with policemen concerning matters which involve unpleasantness and

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emotion. Many supervisors tend to avoid these issues by pretending to ignore them or by tolerating infractions of rules to build themselves up as "good fellows." The supervisor who would reprimand or discipline a policeman may feel that he is doing an unpopular thing of which other policemen will disapprove. There is a reluctance to go against the real or imagined sentiments of the group. The desire to "belong," to have the personal approval of one's subordinates, are strong motivating influences for a supervisor. It requires courage for a supervisor to take action which will be counter to the sentiments of the group. The police supervisor must, however, learn to take this action and to do it with as little disruption to the smooth operation of his unit as possible. Perhaps the first step toward this objective is for the supervisor to realize that his reluctance to face unpleasant situations is human and natural—a normal fear to be recognized for what it is, courageously faced, and overcome.

The most obvious thing about policemen, and for that matter, about all people, is that they are different from each other. We cannot therefore, treat them all alike and expect to get the same results. A police supervisor must see that policies are carried out through his policemen. He cannot carry the load himself; he must delegate the work and must achieve results through the efforts of others. The supervisor cannot effectively function, then, without a thorough knowledge and understanding of the men who work with him. He should study their backgrounds and their behavior, for if he expects to understand their motives and actions it will be necessary for him to know how they live and what forces have molded their lives.

Police supervisors should know their men as individuals intimately and well—off the job as well as on-duty. Events at home and in their private lives are often the real causes of their behavior while on duty. You must know the whole man in order to understand why he acts as he does. Differences among policemen should be used to the best possible advantage by assigning officers where they will work most effectively.

The police supervisor needs to keep abreast of department policies since he must constantly interpret them to his men. Motivation is basic to teamwork. Policemen who know what is expected of them, who learn about changes before they take place, who feel free to discuss problems with their supervisors, will work with heightened interest and enthusiasm. Productivity depends more and more on effective teamwork—on a sense of participation shared by all. This sense of participation arises first and foremost in on-the-job dealings between a policeman and his supervisors. The sergeant who says, "We've got a tough problem and I need your help," is probably doing more to promote a feeling of identity with management policies and objectives than any other device that might be employed.

COMMUNICATIONS

The communication of ideas between people is difficult. In police work, as in other occupations, we face the universal problem of bridging the gap between what a person knows and what he does with it. This bridge is largely built through communication. Policies can only be carried out when policemen work as a team. In order for policemen to work as a team there must be good communications up and down and also across the organizational hierarchy. Real communication moves freely in all directions. This theory is well accepted—as a theory. In practice, however, administrators and supervisors devote far more attention and time to telling, informing, and commanding than they do to listening, asking, and interpreting. Thus even while aggressively communicating, they may fail to tell policemen what they need to know.

Usually one thinks of communication as a single step: transmitting an idea. Actually, communication on the job starts with clarifying the idea in one's own mind, possibly with the help of others; then transmitting it to the persons who are to carry it out; and finally, motivating these persons to take action.

Communication grows best in a climate of trust and confidence. The supervisor who is known to keep promises, to report facts honestly, and to listen sincerely doesn't have to fall back on phoney good fellowship. In the long run policemen are influenced not so much by what management says as by what it does.

Research findings from many sources show that free communication generally results in improved morale and productivity. From these studies one major point keeps emerging: Improvement in communication depends less on the use of mass media than it does on the daily work relations between supervisor and subordinate. The supervisor must bridge the gap between policy-making management and the rank and file policeman. He must point out the meeting ground where the interest of both groups merge.

Orders issued for the purpose of implementing policies will receive greater acceptance and compliance if the reasons for these are explained before the order is given or as a part of the order itself. Mary Parker Follet has said that if an order is correct it could just as well be given by the subordinate as by the supervisor. She calls this principle "The Law of the Situation." Before this principle can come into play, however, the facts and circumstances underlying the order must be brought to the attention of the officers. This procedure has been found very helpful in the Los Angeles Police Department where the reasons given for an order often occupy considerably more space than the actual order itself.

An even better procedure is to contact officers to be affected by the order during its preparation. In this way not only will a more complete and satisfactory order be written, but the order will have more complete

acceptance by persons who consider themselves in a sense, co-authors. You cannot with the greatest degree of success for your department make policy forming and policy implementing two separate processes.

The personnel of police units should always be given an opportunity to examine and suggest modification of any proposed policy that will affect their operations. This can be done through conferences or informal discussions during the development of the policy. A written approval or concurrance should be sought from each unit affected. Any unit that does not approve the policy or some part of it should be required to state in writing their reasons for non-approval. The proposed policy can then be modified by the chief to eliminate the objections or, after due consideration, it can be made effective as originally proposed. In either case, if his officers are convinced that the Chief's consideration of solicited suggestions was sincere, they will respect his decision and carry it out. Communication figures prominently in all problems of human relations—and this is certainly true in a police organization. Whenever there is conflict and lack of understanding there has been a failure to communicate.

The longer the chain of command the more difficult communication becomes in both directions for at each organizational level we find a "layer of insulation." These layers are not created intentionally but are due to several inadvertent causes such as lack of time and failure to understand the need for passing on that which one knows exceptionally well. By the time a communication arrives at the policeman's level it has often lost a considerable part of that sparkle, warmth, and aura of importance that accompanied the birth of the idea in the Chief's office. This is why effective communication must be accompanied in its journey down the organizational structure by some of the spirit of participation that made it seem so important to the Chief.

Some barriers to communication are caused by deliberate sifting of information at various points along the chain of command. Supervisors may neglect to circulate information through sheer force of inertia. They may eliminate some because they feel it is irrelevant to their particular situation or because of reasons of security and strategy. Then there is that all too frequent situation where supervisors set themselves up as "master of the mysteries." By doing so little people seem to gain some sort of satisfaction out of possessing a store of information that is not known to others. Secretiveness can be a protective device for insecure people, especially those who are occupying positions that require skill and ability greater than they possess. This blanket of mystery tends to shield a mediocre supervisor's shortcomings.

Information going up the organizational hierarchy is also filtered at each level. There is a natural tendency on the part of supervisors to filter out information which they feel may make them or their particular unit look bad or make the "boss" unhappy and to pass on only the most favorable and flattering information. If the Chief of Police is to have accurate information upon which to base his policies this tendency on the part of subordinate supervisors must be overcome. This may be accomplished through the use of proper techniques of human relations.

An adequate system for handling grievances and suggestions will do much to maintain morale and to develop good human relations. A grievance is anything which a policeman feels is wrong, whether it actually is or not. The disposition of all grievances and suggestions should be made known to officers who originate them. It is very damaging to good morale for a policeman to forward such a communication and then never hear from it again or worse yet to have his suggestion adopted with the credit being taken by someone in the organization between him and the chief.

One solution often advanced for this problem of handling grievances and suggestions, is known as the "open door policy." Under this policy, the Chief's door is always open to anyone who has a suggestion or a complaint. This practice can be extremely destructive of morale and discipline if officers are not first required to attempt to solve their problems through their immediate supervisor and so on up the organizational hierarchy until they reach the chief only as a last resort. Each subordinate supervisor should have an opportunity

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to solve the problem and should know in advance that the problem is being referred to higher authority.

Space does not permit the presentation of even one of the almost endless examples of policy implementation through discipline, supervision, and communication. I am sure, however, that the reader will recall examples in these fields from his own experience.

THE CHIEF

Last but by no means of least importance to policy implementation is the Chief himself—everything that he stands for and everything that he is. Unless policemen have respect for and confidence in the integrity of their Chief, his policies will never be successfully carried out, for his subordinates will feel insecure and fearful, or perhaps indifferent.

The Chief must conduct himself in a way that makes for confidence, dependability, predictability, and respect on the part of those who work with him and for him.

He must be loyal to his department and its objectives as well as to officers who are carrying out his policies. He must back them up not only when they are right but also when they have made honest mistakes of judgement in carrying out departmental policies.

Now I do not mean that the Chief should protect a man who has been deliberately wrong—for he certainly should not. The loyalty of the Chief, as well as all policemen, must be to the department as a whole. His primary concern must be what is best for all policemen and certainly it is not to the department's advantage to let derelictions go uncorrected.

The point I do want to emphasize is that the Chief can operate only be delegating not only responsibility but also authority to make decisions to his subordinates. He must realize that the process of decision does not come to an end when he has made his initial delegation, but rather that inherent in his delegation is the right vested in subordinates to make many decisions as they proceed to carry out the delegation. Having delegated his authority he must live with his decision and the risks it entails. To penalize subordinates for honest mistakes of judgment in carrying out this delegated authority will cause them to lose respect for and confidence in their boss. Without mutual respect and confidence team work is impossible and it is teamwork that builds a good police organization and makes the implementation of policy possible.

To insure the respect and cooperation of his men the Chief must be a man of integrity and courage. Having made a decision and established a policy he must stand firmly back of it and his officers who are carrying it out. He should not, of course, be "bull-headed" and refuse to re-evaluate a policy. If after re-evaluating all of the factors a change of policy is indicated, he should make the change—but until the change is made he must take full responsibility for the actions of his men in carrying out the original policy.

A police chief must take a personal interest in his men and their welfare and not think of them as pawns to be moved about at will. Through conferences and every other means of communication available he must learn how his policemen feel about departmental policies—present and proposed. He must solicit their suggestions and then listen and carefully consider them. In this way when his decision is finally reached and his policy announced, even though his men may not all agree with the decision, they will respect and follow it.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion I repeat that it is not what policemen are told, but what they accept and act on, that counts. Policies cannot be made effective by merely formulating them—no and not even by proclaiming them loudly throughout the department.

Before policies can become effective the police department must be organized in such a way that policemen have a reasonable opportunity to carry out these policies.

Sufficient money, manpower, and equipment must be made available and properly deployed.

Training must be adequate to pass on to policemen not only skills, techniques and a knowledge of departmental policies but also to develop in them attitudes of interest, cooperation, teamwork, and loyalty.

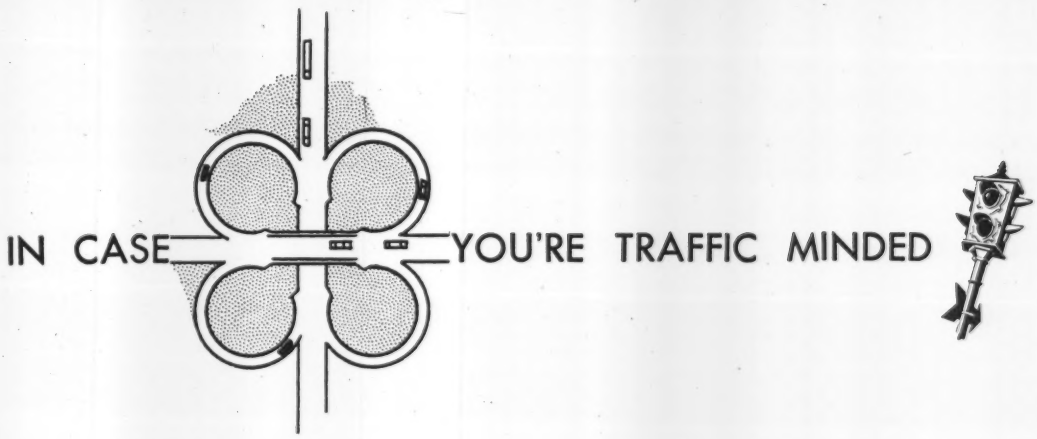
Discipline – both positive and negative – must be applied with intelligence, courage, and impartiality.

Supervsors must learn to stimulate officers to work through leadership, training, example, and respect. They must learn the proper use of commendation and criticism. They must be approachable without being too intimate. Above all they must be fair, impartial, consistent, and firm. They must have the moral courage to take whatever disciplinary action is indicated and not tolerate infractions of rules to build themselves up as "good fellows."

Throughout the department the value of communications must be realized and the techniques of good communication applied. We must constantly remember that communication is a "two-way-street" – that it involves listening as well as telling; motivation as well as knowledge.

Probably most important of all—the chief must conduct himself in a way that makes for confidence and respect on the part of his men. He must be loyal to his department and its objectives. He must have the courage of his convictions and not waiver under outside pressures. He must be fair, impartial, reasonable, and consistent. Above all he must teach by example as well as by precept.

When all of these techniques have been applied in your department you should never again hear one of your officers say, "I know it doesn't make sense—it's just our department's policy." ★★★



Driving Refresher Course for Firemen, Police and Public Transportation Drivers

By A. R. Lauer

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Lauer is Professor of Psychology and Director of the Driving Research Laboratory at Iowa State College, representative of an increasing number of educational institutions where the resources of research are being brought into contact with the traffic problem. Refresher training is regarded as a necessary procedure in medicine, law, engineering and other walks of life. It is none the less indispensable in maintaining driver efficiency. Dr. Lauer here draws up the blueprints for a refresher training course for drivers which will prove of unusual interest to readers of the Journal across the country.*

A few months ago the State of North Carolina set up a driving course for the highway patrol. Their theory was that law enforcement officers could profit by a course of training similar to that given in the schools. A regular course of some duration was set up at the Institute of Government in the University of North Carolina to which most of the traffic officers were requested to attend. They were kept busy for several hours a day for several days.

Such an extended course is probably not needed. The AAA and others have conducted one week courses for any personnel, post office drivers and others, for a number of years. Most commercial companies have some kind of inservice training for their drivers. A systematic type of refresher course is herein proposed for companies and organizations wishing to improve their drivers.

We have been asked to outline such a course for inservice training of firemen. Our experience goes back to beginning attempts made at improving the driving of utility operators with the Dayton Power and Light Company in 1929-30. The results accomplished a 52 per cent reduction in accidents over the next two years among their drivers although it was our first attempt and very little knowledge was available.

After conducting courses for instructors of driving, driver trainers for fleet work and with beginning drivers since 1938, it would seem a program such as the following would serve to help bring drivers up to a higher level of efficiency if properly presented. First, the drivers should be sold on the idea.

We shall divide the suggested presentation into five parts. The entire time required would be about four hours for each driver and about six hours for the supervisor besides preparation. This would be divided up into periods of an hour or less and could easily be fitted into an inservice training program. An outline follows for convenience in visualizing the course and its purposes to aid those interested.

I. Three one-hour talks on points covered in Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 of TOMORROW'S DRIVERS published by Lyons & Carnahan.
II. A ten-minute driving test using the attached form of the Rogers-Lauer Rating Scale, Iowa State Univ. Press.
III. A twenty-minute period to fill out the Driver Reaction Inventory.
IV. One hour for the film, THE SMITH SYSTEM, possibly explained by an optometri t or eye physician, and a patrolman's talk on frequent violations of the regulations by the type of group being considered.
V. Final session for an examination.

The course should have the following objectives since most all will be experienced drivers. Some parts could be expanded for new employees.

I. To call attention to points of good driving emphasized in training beginners.
II. To check drivers for careless driv ing habits by a road test.
III. To direct their attention toward better driving practices and attitudes.
IV. To develop the proper use of the eves in driving by looking for the big picture and turning the head to help the eyes see properl .
V. To create friendly rivalry and a more critical consideration of the driver's own operation by demonstrating differences between drivers.
VI. To review for them some of the

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types of regulations most frequently violated by their group in the local community.

If these objectives are brought out in about the order listed you will most likely have a much better group of drivers on the average after taking the course. True, someone may become involved in an accident the day the course is finished, but this should not trouble you. It may be an object lesson to make the course more effective for the doubters.

We will briefly describe the source material, where it may be obtained, and its proper use. The text suggested, TOMORROW'S DRIVERS, is the result of over twenty years experience in teaching drivers and over thirty-three years research in driving. It is written in understandable language, is of desirable length, and covers only the points which a driver needs to know. For advanced drivers you should concentrate on the type of equipment in use by them. The first part, Chapters 1 and 2, deal mostly with basic facts and only need to be covered in a general way for experienced drivers. Chapters 3 and 4 on the car and its controls should be of special value to drivers. Chapter 5 about vehicle maintenance is very important. Chapter 6 on attitudes is very important to all drivers and should be emphasized. Chapter 7 about accidents should be studied in connection with local accident reporting forms.

Chapter 8 on responsibilities is to be studied in connection with company manuals and regulations, as well as with local traffic regulations and conditions. Chapter 9 brings out many important basic facts often neglected about driving. Chapter 10 treats of important principles of safe driving in traffic situations which every driver should know and review occasionally. By using this as a guide you can cover most troublesome factors in traffic and accident causation. The glossary at the end of each chapter with a resume of important points may be used as a basis for discussion, to arouse interest and bring out practices used by the best drivers for successful performance. Every supervisor should have a copy and adapt the points to his own group. It is published by Lyons & Carnahan, 223-225 S. Main St., Wilkes-Barre, Penna., and sells for $1.20 a copy.

The Rogers-Lauer Scale is a simple check list of behavior patterns and skills needed for driving, items of which are scaled. It has been used for twenty years on all kinds of drivers and offers a simple reliable and valid method of rating on a percentile graph. This shows the driver how he ranks with respect to any other hundred drivers considered. All special drivers should rate above average, particularly in Part II which has to do with skills in driving habits. There are ten items in Part I and fifteen in Part II. Only one item is checked in each category while the examinee is driving. An easy method of scoring is printed on the form and percentile norms are available for immediate classification of the driver. It is published by the Iowa State College Press, Ames, Iowa, at a very nominal cost but requires a short drive for each person to obtain the markings.

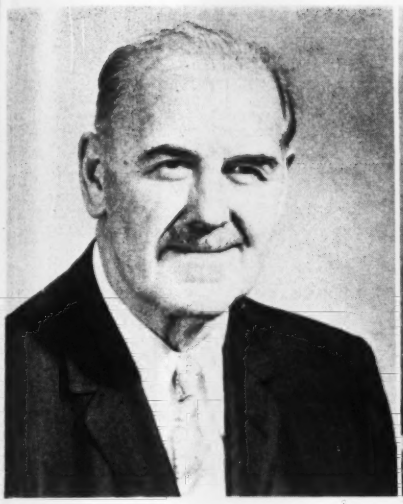
The attitude test most easily administered, scored and rated is the Iowa State Reaction Inventory published by the Iowa State College Press. It has fifty items which may be marked by any number of drivers in a group at one time. The scores reflect the driver's feelings about particular signs, practices and behavior related to driving and traffic. All but a few are useful items, others are put in to throw the driver off the scent with respect to functions of the test. The word attitude does not appear. It is less likely to be doctored by the driver to get a good score than most tests of attitude. One making an extremely low or high score should be cautioned that he would be better off to have less violent feelings about situations marked, particularly those with low scores. This inventory has been in the developmental stage for the past twenty-five years and is available at the Iowa State College Press.

The film, THE SMITH SYSTEM, deals with five good seeing habits in driving and is claimed to be very valuable for drivers. We are not certain about how much research has been done with it. The principles it emphasizes are good for any driver to follow. The film is available from the Ford Motor Company at little, if any, cost.

It is always well to use local traffic enforcement officers and have them point out their grievances with the type of drivers being trained. Milk trucks double park, mail trucks rush about, while other trucks block the alleys, etc. Most every type of service vehicle tends to violate some ordinance more than others.

The final examination is mostly to stimulate rivalry and encourage further reading by the driver. The grades and scores should be posted so that all may see them and make comparison. A copy of TOMORROW'S DRIVERS for every driver would be a good investment.

For instructors, a copy of PSYCHOLOGY OF DRIVING, by the author, Published by Charles C Thomas, Publisher, offers much resource material.



Dr. George Howard Irwin

Dr. Ralph W. Heine

Prof. Amos E. Neyhart

Experts Named for Chicago's "Outstanding Safe Driver" Competition

A three-day "autonaut" testing program covering more than 3,000 human factors effecting safe driving was held in Chicago, the last of September, as part of the first scientific selection of the nation's "outstanding safe driver."

Six National Safety Council award winners who average 30 years of professional driving without accident or even a parking ticket, underwent the medical, psychological, driving performance and knowledge tests as part of a special three-month safety research project sponsorde by the Du Pont Company's "Telar" anti-freeze and summer coolant. Cooperating in the project—the first national program designed to determine the characteristics of safe drivers—were the Safety Research and Education project of Teachers College, Columbia University, the National Safety Council, Remington Rand and Dodge Division, Chrysler Corporation.

The six "autonauts" whose combined driving mileage in 1959 totalled 300,000 miles were selected for the Chicago tests over 5,000 other professional drivers on the basis of a detailed 22-category questionnaire prepared by Columbia, distributed by the Safety Council and data processed by Remington's Univac Division.

The five thousand participants in the project were all winners of the National Safety Council's safe driving award for 20 years or more, and represent the top drivers from a total group of 298,000 in the council's award program.

Directing the Chicago operation were Dr. James L. Malfetti, executive director of the Columbia project. He was assisted by Professor Amos E. Neyhart, regarded as America's pioneer in Driver Education and director of the Institute of Public Safety, Pennsylvania State University; Dr. Ralph W. Heine, professor of psychology at the University of Chicago and past president of the Illinois Psychological Association; and Dr. George Howard Irwin, medical director of the Chicago Transit Authority and a member of the Industrial Medical Association's committee on medical standards for motor vehicle drivers.

Development of the project and the performance drive were outgrowths of the Du Pont Company's testing program for "Telar" antifreeze and summer coolant which was introduced earlier this year. The "Telar Test Drive" was made in a station wagon which has been used in a five-year road testing program for the product involving 400 vehicles.

The information obtained from the Chicago "autonaut" tests and characteristics of the drivers on the Fraser-Furance Creek run will be part of the over-all program which includes further testing of the 5,000 respondents in the Safety Council's award-winning group. A resultant "profile" of safe drivers will be incorporated by Columbia into its over-all studies aimed at developing techniques which might be used to predict safe and unsafe drivers by licensing authorities, fleet operators, insurance underwriters, and others.

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CINCINNATI POLICE DEPARTMENT

Cincinnati, Ohio

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the fourth in a series of seven reports covering planning and research projects completed or in progress in a number of American Police Departments. The first report appeared in the July-August issue of POLICE.*

I. Bureau Projects

A. Staff studies
   1. Auto larceny
   2. Burglaries
   3. House breakings
   4. Training programs
   5. Juvenile procedures and controls
   6. Utilization of civilian clothes assignments
B. Research into police needs in relation to future annexation.
C. Research into police needs in light of community improvements.
D. Research into police needs and demands in relation to urban redevelopment.
   1. Residential
   2. Industrial
E. Research into departmental needs. (Rules and regulations) for new limited access highways.
F. Modification of legislation and recommendations of new legislation at State and City levels.
G. Research into neighborhood problems as revealed by statistical reports.

The Journal serves as a central clearing house for information concerning planning and research in the American police field. Other Departments are invited to send in to the Editor reports covering planning and research projects which they have completed or have in progress.

H. Research into needs for greater development of department resources.
   1. Personnel
   2. Equipment
I. Work load analysis
J. Realignment of districts
K. Realignment of beats within districts
L. Research into needs of personnel within districts as revealed by work load analysis.

II. Organization

A. Department top level reorganization—making department more flexible to needs.
B. Reorganization of districts and assigned personnel.
C. Instituting effective inspectional program.
D. Establishment of new disciplinary program.

III. Staffing

A. Revised recruitment program.
B. Establishment of cadet program.
C. Research into qualifications desirable for police recruits.

IV. Training

A. Greater emphasis into needs of In-Service Training.
B. Inauguration of command-level training classes.

V. Directing

A. Development of new manual.
B. Development of new procedure book.
C. Development of general order book.

VI. Coordinating

A. Development of new Performance Rating records.
B. Development of Field Interrogation Report.
C. Research into development of master name files.

VII. Communications

A. Review of al departmental reports to eliminate superfluous forms; consolidation of various other forms.
B. Establishment of new type of reports and records.
C. Research into use of more modern sirens and public address system on police vehicles.
D. Use of transistor pocket radio.
E. Use of transistor type miniature radio equipment for special needs.
F. Research into sonic alarm device for burglary apprehensions.

VIII. Budgeting

A. Performance budgeting—Needs for future years based on current work experience.
B. Evaluation of paid overtime details.

IX. Miscellaneous

A. Research into Auxiliary Police Program for integration into Civil Defense Program.
B. Establishment of a quadrant system for use in some types of Part I offenses.
C. Disaster Plan
D. Off-duty work program
   1. Uniform
   2. Non-uniform
E. An evaluation of work activities of Vice Control Bureau.
F. New approach to single print filing. (Use of a 5-print card —one for each hand).
G. Revised mug photo—3 views on one negative, using two cameras.
H. Research into identity of weapon purchases.
I. Use of new filing procedure or follow-up on unserved warrants and capias.
J. Project relative to reduction of radio interference from transmissions on same frequency.
K. Establishment of photo and description file of wanted persons in each Police District.

I A A I

International Association of Arson Investigators

Recognition, Collection and Preservation of Evidence In Arson Cases

By Glenroy M. Walker

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Captain Walker became associated with the Michigan State Police October 1, 1937. Subsequently, in 1942, he was promoted to the position as Detective and assigned to special investigation in April of 1942. In 1944, he was transferred to the Fire Marshal Division where he moved through the ranks of Detective Sergeant and Detective Lieutenant to become Captain and Chief of the Division in December, 1958. The author has had a wide experience in arson investigation and the related fields of fire inspection and fire prevention. This is the first in a series of two articles by Captain Walker dealing with the important subject of evidence recognition, its collection and preservation in arson cases. The second article will appear in the next issue of POLICE.*

WHILE it is not essential for the investigator to have the formal, legal background necessary to technically evaluate all intimate factors involving the great field of evidence, he should know some fundamentals about what he is seeking. Although an arson case may eventually come under the examination and scrutiny of legal professionals, it will do so only to the extent that the investigator has collected and preserved the evidence—and the evidence he has collected and preserved will be limited to that which he has recognized as such during the course of his investigation.

In order to recognize evidence, it is important that the arson investigator has a basic understanding as to what it is. Too many investigators, when they think of evidence, dwell in a relatively restricted area of a truly large field. They think only of the evidence items that have material substance; things that can be seen, felt or held. Actually, this is only one type of evidence, and not necessarily the most important in an arson case. Evidence, in legal meaning includes *all* the means by which any alleged matter of fact, the truth of which is submitted to investigation, is established or disproved. As investigators, when we seek evidence we must be prepared to recognize it as anything and everything that will tend to prove or disprove. An arson case is established and successfully prosecuted in court by a process of proving—and proof is established and achieved only through evidence. Except as limited by the so called rules governing admissibility, evidence covers the entire area of statements, admissions, testimony, records, papers, photos, drawings and diagrams, objects and items, specimens, and anything else used to establish proof.

The arson investigator should be able to recognize the three basic classifications of evidence – Direct, Circumstantial and Real:

Direct evidence is described as being comprised of facts that a person knows of his own knowledge, obtained by means of one or more of his five senses. Usually it is what is seen by a person, but could also be what was felt, smelled or heard. Direct evidence requires no inference or deduction to establish a fact, as the fact itself is described by the evidence. Thus, the testimony of one who sees another prepare for and set fire to a dwelling constitutes *direct* evidence.

Circumstantial evidence is described as that which depends on logical inference of the existence of the principle fact from one or more circumstances. Thus, the testimony of one who sees another crumble newspaper, take it with match in hand into a clothes closet out of sight, and then reappear with flame and smoke shortly following will constitute *circumstantial* evidence. Although not actually seeing the fire set, the logical inference is plain, and with the establishing of few related circumstances the principle fact will be proved.

Real evidence is described as evidence furnished by things themselves on view and inspection. This is evidence that speaks for itself and needs no explanation or description; only identification and qualification. This is the type of evidence that is comprised of substance and materal that has shape, body, form or design that can be seen, felt and/or smelled as the case may be. This evidence includes objects, photos, papers, diagrams and specimens in general. It appears logical that items of real evidence such as photographs, diagrams, insurance policies and specimens from the fire scene could be properly used in either the direct evidence or circumstantial evidence example cases

Address: Glenroy M. Walker, Chief, Fire Marshal Division, Michigan State Police, East Lansing, Michigan.

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described above.

There can be no stereotyped or established listing to adequately cover the category of evidence in arson cases so as to identify items by exact comparison. Although arson is a thing apart and classed differently from other type crimes in many respects, we must realize that arson cases are only related to each other, with circumstances and intimate features seldom identical. There have been many inadequate and poor investigations because the investigator was guided, influenced or discouraged too much by the evidence character and trends of past cases. Any inclination or penchant to develop restrictions or limitations in one's thinking concerning the potential scope of evidence in arson investigations is extremely undesirable. It is essential that the investigator be adaptable and flexible from case to case in this respect; for what may constitute proper and valuable evidence in one case may have absolutely no bearing in another—and this could be said, with few exceptions, of every item of evidence known to our collective experience. If the investigator will be conscientiously mindful about what he is attempting to do and retain a few general ideas as to procedure and orderly function, the developing and recognizing of evidence in a case will become a natural and common sense part of the investigation without undue effort.

Fundamentally, the investigator is attempting to prove, by proper evidence, that the crime of arson was or was not committed; and if committed, that a certain person or persons committed it. Except for the Corpus Delicti, the investigation problems and procedures of an arson case are not much different from those associated with other crimes. It is probably in this one respect that arson is a thing apart from other offenses, as there is no other crime that must be so consistently established and proved by comparatively non-conventional and inferential means. Such means necessarily require investigative seeking for evidence of a type that may be associated only to arson. It has long been recognized that arson is a crime of secrecy, and that evidence is often concealed, disguised, destroyed or rendered unidentifiable as a result of the fire; therefore, the Corpus Delicti of the usual arson case must often be proved by bits and shreds of circumstantial evidence—evidence of any type and character that will contribute to the logical inference of the principle fact. Such evidence may, in many instances, go beyond establishing the Corpus Delicti, and contribute also to the identity of the guilty person.

It really is not until all possible sources of information and evidence are exhausted that the arson case can be honestly evaluated, and then it will often be found that what appeared initially to be an unsolvable and hopeless case pieces together a story proving arson.

Evidence, in whatever shape or form it may be, must be collected and preserved with strict observance of certain rules and procedures. In most instances by the time evidence reaches the trial court it has assumed a permanent, unchangeable status and must stand on its merits and legality as established during the investigation. There are two general types of evidence to be considered here; the witness or testimony evidence, and the so called real evidence. Proper collection and preservation of both types is equally important, not only for legal reasons but also to assure it will provide its maximum benefits to the case.

Witness or testimony evidence includes all that is to be said or spoken at the trial by anyone who has knowledge or information, regardless how slight, about the fire and the principles involved. Probably more so than in any other criminal trial the evidence developed from witness's testimony assumes major importance in an arson trial, as it is through this medium that the usual dearth of real and conventional evidence must be compensated for. The rules of evidence governing admissibility, of course, apply. Using care in the process of collecting and preserving this type evidence is as important as with any other, and carelessness or neglect will result in irreparable harm to the case. Here the investigator must consider and hold the witness himself as evidence, as well as what he has to tell. This cannot be done literally or physically, of course; but by proper approach and conduct; by giving

necessary time to him; by cultivation and conditioning, he, along with his testimony, can and must be collected and secured for the success of the case. In following these things it is not implied that any devious or illegal tactics be resorted to. Rather it is suggesting that the investigator explore and exhaust all possible evidence potential from the witness. Often out of a long and diversified interview, there will be a few important and vital points or bits of information that will constitute evidence when related in court. Bearing in mind that this is evidence that the witness must tell by himself in court, it is proper that the investigator bear down on and emphasize these points to him so that his memory of them will be assured and his testimony complete and competent. How often have we recorded evidence of this nature in our minds and in our reports in such a way that the contribution provided important and much needed parts of the case, only to have the thing blow up in court because we took things for granted and did not properly secure this evidence with the care and effort we devote to other types.

It is not only with the uninitiated civilian that this evidence processing is necessary, but also with the fire fighters, other officials and the investigator himself. There should be no exception to the complete review with and conditioning of all the police and fire officers who are to provide evidence of this type—they should know the part they and their evidence will play and also be informed as to court procedures and handling as applied to the conduct of an arson trial. Taking the time for these things is extremely important and will add much quality and effect to the evidence. There is much more reason why modified but similar treatment should be afforded the civilian witness. Without reasonable and judicious review and conditioning, the first experience of a civilian witness on the stand may result in his composure and mental processes being seriously affected; therefore the effect and quality of his testimony evidence is impaired and will fall far short of the contribution expected and planned for.

It is imperative that this type evidence be preserved by means other than just memory alone. It is essential that through use of statements, notes and reports the investigator effect preservation; and in some instances it will be in order to provide the witness with a copy of his statement or some account of his story—especially if there is a lapse of time involved of any consequence. In all cases it is wise to recontact the witness just before the trial for review if at all possible.

It has been intended here to show that the witness or testimony type evidence can and should be looked upon as evidence that must be collected and preserved in the strictest sense of the word; that careful procedure and technique is required; and that the securing of this valuable evidence can be ruined or impaired because of the investigator's failure to recognize it as such.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The second in this series of two articles will appear in the next issue of POLICE.* ★★★

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Sheehan Heads New Police Science Program

Robert Sheehan, formerly a professor on the staff of the School of Police Administration and Public Safety at Michigan State Univ., has accepted an appointment on the faculty of Northeastern Univ. in Boston, Mass., as Chairman of the Department of Law Enforcement and Security. Adding to the list of educational institutions whose resources for training and research have been brought into contact with the needs of the police field, Northeastern's step forward marks the beginning of formal police training at the university level in New England.

Professor Sheehan is a graduate of Tufts College in Medford, Mass. Subsequently, while completing the requirements for the Master's degree, he served with the Police Dept. of Everett, Mass. He was in charge of industrial security inspection for three New England industrial plants prior to becoming a Special Agent with Military Intelligence. In 1957, he was appointed Ass't. Prof. of Police Administration and Public Safety at Michigan State Univ., and placed in charge of the graduate and undergraduate programs in Industrial Security Administration.

The Chairman of the new Department is co-author of a new book, STOPPING VEHICLES AND OCCUPANT CONTROL (Charles C Thomas, Publisher), scheduled for immediate release.

The Birth of A Police Department

By William A. Sommers

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Four years ago Bensalem, Pennsylvania, had no police force. Today, it boasts a well organized Police Department with a compliment of eighteen men, five police cars, records and communication facilities, and the possibility of a new police headquarters lay-out. Here, Mr. Sommers, Bensalem Township Manager, presents the saga of the birth of a Police Department and its growing pains, for which the Manager and the Board of Supervisors had the appropriate remedy.*

Bensalem, on the fringe of the Philadelphia metropolitan complex, found itself engulfed almost over-night with a phenomenal increase in population, patterns of through traffic headed for access points to the Delaware section of the Pennsylvania Turnpike and other problems, which as suddenly required the presence of an organized police force. In this evolution of a Police Department, compressed within a four-year cycle, the reader will recognize some of the growing pains experienced over the years by his own organization.

NOTE: *Since writing this article, Mr. Sommers has accepted a similar position with a new Township which recently adopted the Council-Manager plan of government. He is now located near Rutgers University on one end and Princeton on the other and being nearer New York, he is experiencing the same swirl of metropolitan growth that he did in Bensalem. In the process, he is now presiding at the 'birth' of another police department.*

MUCH of current attention in police work is directed to the operations, methods, and administration of departments in large cities, those of 100,000 population or over. And, of course, this is where much of modern development and progress is taking place. However, a great deal can be learned in observing the growth and transformation of smaller departments, particularly those experiencing the varied problems of growth in the umbra of a large city.

Bensalem Township is a case in point and gives evidence of the many elements involved in the growth of police operations in a rapidly expanding metropolitan area. It is located in Lower Bucks County, next to Philadelphia. In 1950 the population was about 11,000 and by 1957 an official census reported a count of 21,858 while present estimates put the population near 25,000. In a few short years Bensalem Township, once a rural area with scattered villages, has been transformed into a bursting portion of growing suburbia with all the attendant problems and difficulties.

Within the township there are eighty five miles of township-owned roads and thirty-five miles of state maintained highways, all of which are patrolled by township police forces. This picture is further complicated by the intense pattern of thru traffic using such main routes as U. S. No. 1, Route 13 and access points to the Delaware Valley section of the Pennsylvania Turnpike. On the horizon is the projected Delaware Valley Expressway connecting the heart of Philadelphia with points near New Jersey. In this plan Bensalem is in for two major intersections which will further complicate our traffic troubles. Nor is this all. The township, because of its proximity to Philadelphia, is being inundated with housing developments with most of the last open farmland being bought up to make way for newer and larger developments. Thus the problems of the city are being brought to the country and the police operation must continually reflect this change in its effort to provide adequate protection to the township residents.

Until 1951 the township police affairs were handled by Justices of the Peace and their elected constables and, where affected, by State Police. The township had no organized force as such. However, with the great growth of the township the problems of traffic, of personal crimes and general property protection began to come to the fore. Concern was voiced by the town fathers and early in 1951 a petition from a number of responsible citizens was presented to the Board of Supervisors, requesting that a police department be formed as soon as possible. In November of that year the Supervisors respected the petition and appointed two police officers and purchased a police car. The department was on its way!

Within two years the township had increased its force to five officers and two police cars. Top salary was $3,900 and starting pay was set at $3,000. The department had installed radios in the cars and the operation was hooked in with the Bucks County Radio Service to give coordinated protection between townships in the county. The force was largely a day-time operation with officers set on rotation for evening standby in case they were called out. A small room in an already crowded township building was given over to police operations which concerned itself largely with traffic matters and minor difficulties.

But as the township grew more attention had to be given to the police portion of township functions. A brief reading of the minutes of the Board of Supervisors will give evidence of this attention. For instance, the periodic necessity of increasing the number of po-

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A newborn Police Department serves in the Emergency. Here Officer Frank Wolnuik notes road washout after severe rain storm. Barricades were called for and Police were on hand to direct re-routed traffic and aid maintenance crews.

Congratulations are in order for Bensalem Police Officers graduating from a recent class at the Philadelphia Police Academy. Sergeant Norman Rigby (far left) graduate first in a class of 149. Left to Right—Unidentified Academy Official; Police Commissioner of Philadelphia, Thomas J. Gibbons; Bensalem Chief of Police William Riempp, Jr.; Officer John Smith; Officer Thomas Chubb; Sergeant Norman E. Rigby.

licemen gave rise to a need for specific standards for recruitment and thus we have an entry on June 1, 1954 where a motion was passed setting down an age requirement of no less than twenty-five and no more than thirty with the additional requirement of a high school education. Another sign of the times was the signing of a contract with a nearby township to pool radio resources because former arrangements were no longer equal to the increased work load.

By 1955 the department had started to take on its present form. Early in the year the present Chief, William F. Riempp, Jr., was appointed Chief after many years of service in the Pennsylvania State Police Force. At the same time three more officers were added to the compliment and later in the year the Board of Supervisors adopted a comprehensive set of Rules and Regulations spelling out the administration, organization and conduct of the growing police department of Bensalem Township. While the department had been operating out of the crowded township building, the frequent addition of personnel and the gradual accumulation of special equipment, records and frequent closed interrogation sessions all pointed toward the necessity for new quarters. In 1956 the Supervisors purchased a ten acre tract of land in the heart of the township with the hope that in the not too distant future a new township building would be erected there. The land contained an old farm house which, when remodeled and renovated, became the new headquarters of the Bensalem Police Department. With this move, more space was available for a variety of changes that were needed.

Records were revised to include extensive criminal and juvenile files while new accident reports were adopted for greater detail and cross reference to the major activity files was now practical because of added space in the new quarters. Also added at this time was a comprehensive daily report form, a stolen car report and a summary monthly reporting system.

Because the police department works very closely with the volunteer fire companies in the township, and with the added space available, the Board of Supervisors revised the communications system for the five volunteer companies and installed in the police headquarters a telephone board. By this device fire calls are immediately transmitted to the volunteer companies affected by pushing the proper button which in turn rings the main fire bell in the respective company. Upon arrival the company chief phones in, learns the location of the fire and is on his way. Two civilian operators man the fireboard on the late shifts and the whole operation is under the general direction of the Chief of Police who is in consultation with the volunteers on various problems that arise from time to time concerning its use.

Another addition of great importance to the department which was made because of the increased space available and the necessity of such a function in a growing department, was the photo lab. Under the direction of one of our patrolman trained in photography we have a wide range of equipment, including enlarger, developing baths, and graflex cameras. Each officer has been trained in the use of the equipment and we can do all our own work not only for police operations but for general township needs. Many pictures taken by our department have been used in the local papers with crediting by-lines. Thus our photo lab not only serves immediate needs but is also a very good tool for better public relations.

As the department grew it became increasingly evi-

CHART I

1959 BUDGET PROPOSALS

DETAIL OF EXPENDITURES

POLICE DEPARTMENT

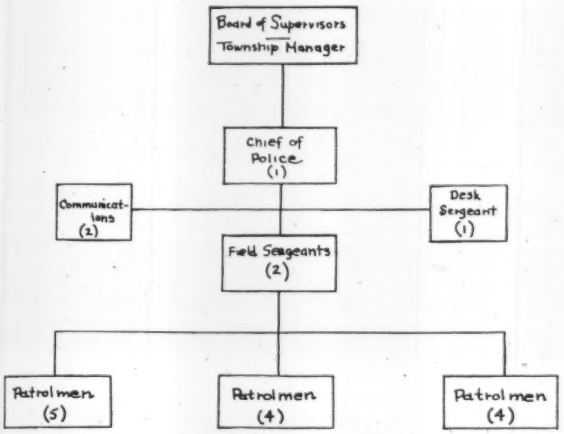
1. Personnel:					
Chief	(1)	26pp @$239.	$6,214.00	$ 6,214.00	
Sergeants	(3)	26pp @ 194.	5,044.00	15,132.00	
Patrolmen	(9)	26pp @ 182.	4,732.00	42,588.00	
Patrolman	(1):				
		10pp @ 171.			
		16pp @ 182.	4,622.00	4,622.00	
Patrolmen	(2):				
		18pp @ 171.			
		8pp @ 182.	4,534.00	9,068.00	
Patrolmen	(2):				
		10pp @ 164.			
		16pp @ 171.	4,376.00	8,725.00	
				86,349.00	
Overtime Allotment				1,500.00	
Informant Fees				125.00	
					$87,974.00
2. Contractual Services:					
Dues to Police Organizations				30.00	
Int'l Chiefs Annual Conference				300.00	
Other Training				200.00	
					530.00
3. Supplies & Materials:					
Uniform Replacements				1,500.00	
Prisoner Meals				200.00	
Telephone Costs				725.00	
Office Supplies				500.00	
Fingerprint Supplies				85.00	
Photographic Supplies				500.00	
Cleaning Supplies				95.00	
Misc. Supplies				50.00	
					3,655.00
4. Capital Items:					
Four Police Cars (with trade-in)				5,000.00	
Car maintenance & speedometer tests				2,600.00	
Radio rental—Bristol Township				1,250.00	
Radio Service Contract				325.00	
Miscellaneous Items				300.00	$ 97,475.00
				Grand Total	$101,634.00

dent that the need for definite, routine training, particularly of new recruits, had to be met. With the cooperation of the Philadelphia Police Department and the generosity of Police Commissioner Thomas J. Gibbons the facilities of the Philadelphia Police Academy were made available to the department. Every new member of the department was then required to successfully complete a course at the Academy in order to receive a permanent appointment to the police department. All the older members of the force were also put through the Academy so that today the department can justifiably boast that every man in uniform has been through this training program. In addition to this exceptional opportunity we have availed ourselves of various FBI short courses offered in the county and three officers have completed traffic training courses of two weeks at the University of Pittsburgh, financed by the Keystone Automobile Club of Philadelphia.

Respecting training it should also be noted that our Department uses a regular written entrance examination plus a thorough check of the applicants' background and references. The rank of the written examination is the determining factor in his selection, assuming that the other investigations prove satisfactory. In addition, we have lately used a rugged civil-service type promotional examination in the recent appointment of two sergeants. Officials of the Philadelphia Police Academy helped draft and administer a thorough sergeant's examination which was followed by an oral board's rating test. The final grade was then given an additional boost for seniority and the two top men were selected. Our written examination was rated at 60% and the oral at 40,% with seniority being credited on the basis of 1% of the final grade for each year of service.

CHART II

Bensalem Township Police Organization



Bensalem Township
Bucks County, Penna.

CHART III

COST FIGURES ON POLICE CARS, 1958

Car Numbers	17	18	19	20	21
Gasoline	712.08	854.62	855.12	822.67	249.83
Oil	51.08	58.94	42.95	48.21	9.65
Tires & Others	122.77	154.31	169.40	134.15	117.87
Wash. & Greasing	48.30	64.20	57.10	71.90	15.75
Repair Labor	255.81	288.92	191.86	262.95	139.94
Repair Parts	198.08	101.07	234.94	160.84	176.44
Other	52.47	22.55	24.65	21.90	8.80
Insurance	220.60	208.00	208.00	208.00	220.60
Depreciation	725.00	725.00	725.00	725.00	720.00
Totals	$2386.19	$2477.61	$2509.02	$2455.62	$1658.88
Mileage	31,633	37,097	32,975	33,803	16,624
Cost/mile without Depreciation	5.2¢	4.7¢	5.1¢	5.1¢	5.6¢
Cost/mile depreciation on 2 yrs. @ cost of $1450; No. 21 depreciated on 3 yrs. @ $2160.	7.5¢	6.7¢	7.6¢	7.2¢	10¢

Another example of the growth of the department can be seen by comparing some budget figures. In 1951 a little less than $3,000 was spent on police operations while the approved budget for 1959 indicates an estimated expenditure of $101,634 with an additional $12,000 budgeted for pensions, health and indemnity insurance coverage. For a detailed look at the breakdown of these expenditures you will note that Chart I gives the Bensalem Township Budget Sheet for the Police Department for 1959.

Chart II shows the present compliment and organization of the Bensalem Township Police Department which consists of one chief, three sergeants, fourteen patrolmen and two civilians. The work week is forty-two hours with additional time being compensated for at straight pay or time off. Police officers receive their uniforms from the township and after a yearly inspection by the Chief and the Board of Supervisors, additions and replacements are ordered on a bid basis. The township also pays for their health and accident insurance and contributes to their pension system which is established under state law; the officers contribute 5% of their salary.

Bensalem Township Police Officer receives Training Certificate.

Left to right—Carl E. Hennrich, Special Agent in charge of the Philadelphia FBI Office, and Samuel Siegle, Executive Director, Pennsylvania Chiefs of Police Association, congratulate Officer Warren Brady, Bensalem Township Police Department, while Township Manager William Sommers observes.

Chief	$6214	per year
Sergeant	5044	" "
Patrolman:		
6 months	3874	" "
One Year	4264	" "
18 months	4446	" "
Two Years	4732	" "

A main essential of the police department is its motorized equipment. We have five vehicles: three 1959 Ford Sedans, 8 cylinder, 300 hp; one station wagon, 1959 Ford, 8 cylinder, 300 hp; one 1957 Mercury, 8 cylinder which is used as the Chief's car. Two of the Ford sedans are equipped with cruisomatics for the first time so that we can judge their use for economy and efficiency. It is our policy to trade in the cars at about 40,000 miles for experience has shown that after this mileage has been reached, repairs become more frequent and more costly. We keep a very close check on costs so that the cars can be disposed of quickly when maintenance gets too high. A summary of the 1958 statistics on police cars is shown in Chart III.

Such is the first chapter of the growth of the Bensalem Township Police Department. From a small beginning in the minds of citizens who desired effective police protection in the face of a growing suburban area, it has evolved to a well trained, alert department, confident that it will always keep pace with the problems of the future. ★★★

STATISTICS FOR POLICE EFFICIENCY

The Future of Police Statistics

By John I. Griffin

THE PROBLEM

Observers both within the police profession and independent students, such as criminologists and governmental officials, have long been impressed with the inadequacies of our present knowledge of the magnitude and characteristics of crime. In a broader sense, the magnitude and characteristics of the entire police problem are not fully known through the compilation and publication of reliable police statistics. Dr. Ronald H. Beattie, of the California Department of Justice, has observed "Until the time comes when offenses reported to the police can be analyzed uniformly from the original crime reports and classified into more meaningful subdivisions of the major criminal offense types, there will be little chance that the information on crimes, or even on persons arrested and booked, will have sufficient consistency to furnish a reliably comparable picture of crime—Progress is being made in this direction, primarily from the fact that police departments and sheriffs' offices are becoming more and more professionalized and concerned with accurate accounting of the work that they do."

This emphasis upon the basic importance of improving the statistical work in individual police departments is not, of course, an original observation by contemporary analysts. In 1928 Lent D. Upson, who was associated with Police Commissioner William P. Rutledge of Detroit, said, "The facts—when records exist at all—lie buried in the 'squeal books'. Police can not ask for adequate statistics from others until they have shown an inclination to remedy the defects existing in their own procedure." With the movement toward professionalization, which has gained such momentum in recent years in the United States, a new emphasis should be given to better police statistics, better not merely in the sense of more accurate but better in the sense of more useful to the police themselves.

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POLICE TRAINING

Since law enforcement is primarily a local matter in the United States, the raising of the standards of statistical work becomes a particularly difficult task. Improvement can not effectively be legislated or directed from above, certainly not from the national level. Since the laws governing crime and police procedures are generally state wide, in certain states, where effective state data reporting procedures now exist, there is some hope that the state statistical agencies might work effectively with their local law enforcement agencies. However, any useful statistical training program would imply a considerable expansion of the duties of these state agencies. Since only a few states now have effective state-wide crime reporting, other means will be necessary in most of the United States.

It should be noted that the growing acceptance of state-mandated minimum police training standards may eventually result in the development of well organized police training centers serving entire states. While such state laws presently deal with the assurance of a minimum number of hours of training for individual police officers, the pattern could be extended to specialized unit training, such as training for officers in charge of statistical units. Of course, at the present time, the minimum state standards are well below the training standards of the best local police departments. It is suggested, however, that mandated minimum training standards may prepare local police agencies to accept minimum standards in the technical services, such as statistics and records.

ATTITUDES TOWARD STATISTICS

Fundamental to any improvement in police statistics is a change in the attitude of police commanders and the rank and file of police officers toward statistics. There can be no real enthusiasm for improved statistical procedures unless the police officers themselves can be made to realize that statistical methods are a useful tool for *them* in the more effective performance of their duties. All of us who have worked with police officers of high and low rank have, no doubt, been impressed with two fundamental attitudes toward statistics. First of these is an impatience with statistical reporting regarding this as a routine chore which is added to their many, already irksome, reporting responsibilities. In large measure this attitude is explained by the lack of "feedback."

Complaints are constantly heard about statistical reports flowing from the field commanders to headquarters, from headquarters to state agencies and to Washington, without anything coming back. Unless the originating unit can see a return to it from the efforts expended in preparing statistical reports, these reporting operations will become strictly routinized. On higher levels, if periodic reporting under the regulations of state agencies or in the course of cooperation with the Uniform Crime Reporting program is regarded as simply an addition to an already over-burdened work schedule, the main positive gains in such a broader based reporting system will be lost.

Certain fairly obvious administrative steps can be, and are, taken to involve as many members of the police department as possible in the statistical reporting cycle. Summaries of departmental annual reports may be made available to each police officer, in the same way that many business corporations make available their annual stockholders reports to their employees. In addition superior officers, down to and including the rank of patrol sergeant, can be supplied with daily or weekly statistical summaries. Despite the statistical pitfalls in the comparison of uniform crime reports between cities, these dangers should not preclude vigorous discussions of the reports submitted by communities of generally comparable character, in order to help identify factors bearing upon efficient police service. Such discussions would be appropriate on the level of district or precinct commanders and chiefs. It remains a source of amazement how many senior police officers have never made any *use* of the Uniform Crime Reports except to assert that comparisons can not be made.

The second and far more damaging attitude is a wide-spread cynicism in respect to the validity of police statistical reports. This skepticism in regard to their own reports reflects a long standing conviction in many police agencies that the "truth" can not be reported, or at least should not be reported, in such matters as the number and types of crime complaints received. It will be recalled that in the autobiography of Lincoln Steffens he tells how he and Jacob Riis created "crime waves" in the New York City newspapers by publishing crime complaint information which was buried in a pigeonhole of a police official's desk. Many ingenious procedures have been instituted in subsequent years to assure that no crime complaints "get lost."

Experience suggests, however, that human ingenuity will defeat the most soundly conceived system. Fundamental to this problem is the fact that the reported statistics on crime complaints are used to determine the efficiency rating of the very police commanders who report the data. There is, inevitably pressure to "close the squeal book" and therefore to improve the clearance rates. Since experienced police commanders know that, with the exception of certain types of crimes against the person, the clearance rates even with vigorous police action are likely to be low, the situation from their point of view can be improved by minimizing crime complaints reported. On the level of a police chief it may be difficult for him to present to the political leaders of his community and to the public, a picture which is too black, because the police department may be blamed for these conditions which were, of course, not of their making.

Occasionally a fearless new administration will shock the public with crime complaint figures which are realistic. Such shock treatment often results in substantial increases in police department budgets and manpower. However, matters soon seem to return "to normal." There would appear to be need for drastic action

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to separate the function of data reporting and analysis from that of efficiency rating of police commanders. Until the commander of a precinct is convinced that he will not be penalized by reporting an actual increase in crime complaints, there will be a tendency for him to take the same attitude toward his periodic reports as a salesman toward his daily activity statement. Certainly in a period when statistical standards in respect to politically sensitive series of data like the number of unemployed, industrial production and the cost of living are now of the highest, the same professional approach to police statistics is needed.

AREAS OF PROGRESS

There would appear to be four major areas in police statistics which promise the greatest rewards from intensive professional work. These are: effective presentation of data, development of sample survey procedures, intensive use of small area data, and the introduction of electronic data processing. The first of these selected areas concerns the comparatively simple problem of effective tabular and graphic presentation. Unfortunately many police departments now fail to communicate their message to the community. This failure makes more difficult the accomplishment of the police mission in the community.

In a period when the competition for public attention is more intensive than ever before, a poorly prepared and presented report reflects adversely upon the public opinion of the members of a police department and the manner in which they are performing their duties. A small investment of time and effort will produce effective tables and charts which will give the public an impression of professional competence. An examination of the current standards of presentation in the annual reports of police departments will quickly reveal the lost opportunity in this regard. The use of simple and effective charts in newspapers and on television programs has been found in a number of cities to be of great assistance in telling the police story to the public. From the technical point of view, instruction in the methods of statistical presentation can be easily absorbed by designated police or clerical personnel assigned to these duties. Much of the good opinion that a community may have of its police department as a progressive organization, may be lost by a poorly prepared report. The dramatic and human story of the work of a police agency should be revealed in the show window that is the annual report. The statistician can make a real contribution to police work in this simple area.

The second area of promising development is the adaptation of sample survey procedures to police problems. Just as sample surveys provide useful estimates in many important areas of economic and social data, so police commanders could use scientific sampling in order to obtain information needed for planning and operations. The reluctance of many police officials to accept sampling on the ground that they do not wish "estimates" is paralleled by similar attitudes in industrial and accounting applications. The massive evidence now available of successful applications of sampling procedures should be brought to the attention of the police.

Perhaps one of the most interesting and potentially significant applications of sampling is in the making of attitude surveys in sensitive areas. Such surveys might be addressed to such questions as police-community relations, attitudes of minority groups and the like. Inspector G. Douglas Gourley's pioneering study published in 1953 should be read in this connection. Because of the confidential and sensitive nature of the work of a police sampling unit, the personnel should probably be police officers trained in statistical procedures. The organization and operation of such a sampling unit will require professional guidance which could well be provided in most parts of the country by sample survey specialists.

The growing abundance of small area statistical data has led a number

of police departments to code their crime complaints and activity reports by city block, census tract or other small area unit. With the results of the 1960 Census of Population and Housing soon to be available, the opportunity will present itself for many more police departments to relate police activity to small area economic and social data. Fundamental in such a procedure is the adoption of a coding system by blocks or at least by census tracts. Coding police reports by beat and by precinct or district, while important from the point of view of administrative analysis, does not permit meaningful statistical comparisons. It is best, of course, to lay out police unit boundaries so as to agree with census tract boundaries.

In some cities police representatives serve as members of the local Census Tract Committee in cooperation with business and other groups. Police representatives can gain much by working together with local public utilities, school officials, health department representatives and academic students interested in the making of current estimates of the population of small areas. In some communities the professional isolation of the police has caused them to duplicate analyses which have already been made by other agencies. One of the more interesting by-products of the correlation of small area data and police crime complaints and activity reports should be the development of defensible schemes for patrol force allocation. The pioneering work of Dean O. W. Wilson needs to be followed up by intensive correlation analysis using data from the larger cities. Out of this, uniformities should emerge which will permit the development of rational manpower allocation plans.

The last of the suggested areas for major work is the application of electronic data processing to police statistical problems. While punched card equipment has long been used in major cities, the potentials of E. D. P. have not been explored. It would appear that file computers with large rapid access capacities would be most promising since police records require rapid search as well as rapid print-out. The manufacturers of E. D. P. equipment should be encouraged to develop programs which would be applicable to the larger departments, and groups of smaller agencies using centralized files. By all means police statistics will advance. ★★★

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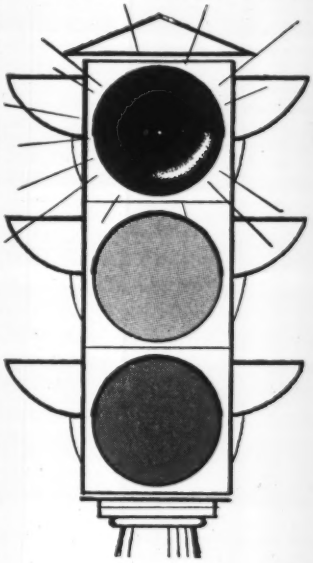

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Criminality and the Kid Next Door

By Clifford L. Scott

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Lt. Col. Scott entered police service in 1936 with the Wichita Kansas Police Department and later held the rank of Captain with the San Antonio Texas Police Department. He accepted a Regular Army Commission in the Miliary Police Corps in 1947. His military assignments have included the responsibility as Chief of Criminal Investigation, Philippine Ryukus Command; Air Staff Provost Marshal, Thirteenth Air Force; Provost Marshal, New York Area; Commanding Officer 6th Military Police (Criminal Investigation) Central Detachment, Hq., U. S. Army, Europe; Provost Marshal, Desert Rock VII and VII, Desert Rock, Nevada, and Provost Marshal, 5th Infantry Division. He is currently Provost Marshal, 7th Division, Korea.*

PSYCHOLOGISTS tell us that we often unconsciously try to escape from reality by denying it, or distorting it, or retreating from it, or attacking it, or compromising with it. This happens all the time when the problem of juvenile crime slaps us full in the face. A frightening proportion of our well meaning citizens refuse to accept it as everybody's problem. There are those who say "It is not my problem—It belongs to the city, or the school, or the church, or the government."

There are those who say "We are too strict"—or "too easy"— or "too theoretical" or "too practical."

Day after day they cry—"Why don't the police do something?" They fail to realize that a lot of thinking citizens and a lot more thinking police officers are attempting to do something about it even with limited knowledge and a hazy view of the problem.

The public is intensly interested in it for it has a certain mystery and drama that the public arts have long capitalized on. The public is also the perennial victim of it and therefore has an interest as an unwilling participant. To the police officer it remains a headache that won't go away.

In our efforts to understand criminality we have devised, accepted, rejected, and considered many theories. One of the earliest was proposed by Cesare Lombroso, an Italian Physician of the middle 19th century who considered the criminal to be an atavistic type midway between the lunatic and the savage. He tried to establish a relationship between physical types and specific crimes.

Lombroso's theories hung on in spite of contrary evidence until well into this century.

Dugdale's famous "Jukes" study and Goddard's *Kallikaks* started the early 20th century trend of questioning heredity and considering feeblemindedness among the causes of criminality.

During the 1920's a popular concept had youthful criminals linked to endocrinologic unbalance. This theory lasted but a decade.

There have been all sorts of other theories including Prichard's *Moral Insanity* and Koch's *Psychopathic Personality*.

Most theorists disagree with each other to some extent on what it is and why. But from them all, two general themes emerge. One of these holds that the delinquent personality is always present in preschool years. To these people, all small children are delinquent because they take what they want when they want it without inhibition and they are happy in natural anti-social relationships. The older delinquent then simply has never shed his childish ways.

Another school holds that delinquency comes about when instinctive drives are strong and conscience is weak and when the ego is bent on immediate pleasure and satisfaction without regard to custom. Others think that the problem arises when youngsters attempt to escape from reality by denying or distorting it or by retreating from it or by compromising with it or by attacking it.

All of them contain valuable truths but none of them can answer in full the beat-officer's problem.

An encouraging note in this confusing spectrum is the fact that many psychiatrists today deny the existence of the (criminal) type as a separate entity. They seem to be in agreement that relatively few delinquents or criminals appear to be true psychopaths.

This is sometimes difficult for us to accept because we often overlook those rules of conformism and discipline that we subject our youngsters to at a time in their lives when they seek independence, self-determina- and self-realization.

Today they must seek that outlet in conventionality, in customs developed by time, and within laws made by their elders. Sometimes they can find it in athletics or in the school or in a social group but always they need confidence, success, contact and harmony with reality, increasing self

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direction, adventure, recognition, a peer status, acceptance, understanding, and love.[1]

Broudy covers one aspect of this problem when he says:

"In the broader philosophic sense the most general feature of human life is the fact that it is powered by a set of desires that originate in the physical and psychic needs, but which conclude, thanks to memory and imagination, in a veritable jungle of human wants, needs, and aspirations. And through this jungle stalk the hopes and fears that attend all our desires."[2]

Broudy feels that there are three primary principles attending the structure and dynamics of personality: *The Principle of Self-Determination, The Principle of Self-Realization,* and *The Principle of Self-Integration.*[3]

These needs and drives are especially strong in the adolescent and they must be satisfied in some way if he is to fall into the area we casually label as normal. Society not only attempts to define and guide these drives or needs but it (society) also provides approved means of satisfaction. Often these approved means cannot be attained and he must seek alternative satisfaction. This starts usually as truancy, gang membership, stealing, lying, and a general dependance on a gang for friendship, loyalty, and protection. If allowed free rein, these minor " satisfactions" demand more and more until they become serious crimes.

The adolescent is a puzzling paradox—even to himself. He is beyond the child stage and yet he is not accepted as an adult. That is why he has developed his own culture. Commercial advertising is alert to this culture and it is out to get his dollar. This culture has devised its own set of values—most of them good but some of them immature. We have all seen youngsters, and adults too for that matter, who would do anything to get their names in a news-cast or on the front page. This is one way to satisfy that craving for recognition. One sure way of getting it is through crime.

There are three current approaches to the problem of youthful criminality. The first and most popular approach asks for a radical improvement of our entire social structure to include the elimination of slum areas, discrimination and prejudice, and illiteracy. This approach calls for increased recreational and health facilities as well. Another view is that the potential offender should be singled out for attention before he gets into trouble. This view is sometimes expanded to include the treatment of parents of potential young trouble makers. These first two approaches stress prevention.

The third view holds that the first offender should be granted more attention in an effort to reduce recidivism. This belief holds that since the majority of youngsters do not get into trouble, we should concentrate on those that do.

Although psychologists and sociologists and researchers and police and clergymen and educators and parent groups have amassed a great deal of technical and factual data, there are still many problems which can not be answered by these means.

Any veteran police officer will recognize them and he will tell you that as yet there are no answers to them. He knows, for he has heard the babble of many voices and has seen the jumble of theoretical proposals at the "thinking" level while at night the switchblades are still sharp and the zip-guns are still there and the "rumbles" still go on.

He knows that "they say" that delinquency is tied inversely to prosperity but it is hard for him to understand this when both properity and crime seem to increase with each desk-blotter report.

They say too, that a lot of kids get into trouble because the world is all mixed-up but this is hard to take for he knows that the world has always been mixed-up with scarcely a day free from some war or border incident or revolution or international tension.

They tell him that it is always the parent's fault but he knows personally of too many cases where

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parents were not to blame in any way.

They insist that no youngster could really be bad but he can show you some of the most vicious individuals in society who will not be old enough to vote for several years. He can also point out a lot of respectable citizens who once were police problems but who somehow grew out of it.

This police officer knows that there are massive forces affecting delinquency rates vastly more important than slum clearance, play grounds, the Police Juvenile Bureau, the school system, the juvenile courts, or the social worker's staff. He knows this because he is face to face with the whole rotten mess night after night.

This officer realizes that the youngster in crime is not only a psychological and sociological problem but is also a philosophical problem.

He knows that the most efficient preventive device is a well marked police car manned by a couple of cops:—but this is only treating symptoms.

He knows that slum clearance is a fine thing. He would like to see it too, for he gets tired of answering family disturbance calls and of working fires and of handling assistance cases in a stinking slum district; but new housing only treats symptoms after all.

He would like to see the courts hold parents responsible. This would include the prominent parent as well as the slum dweller;—but here too is but a symptom being treated.

He would like to see his own department bolstered with more men and better equipment and public backing for a get-tough policy.

He would like to see the do-gooders get a taste of what it's really like —the chronic police critics—the disbelievers—the sob-sisters--they should really know, he feels.

He would like to see the thinkers in this business get down to reality and quit treating this problem like it is a disease to be conquered as soon as a new vaccine can be developed.

This to him is much bigger and vastly more complicated problem. To him, it can't be settled in a week or a decade or a generation. It will be a gradual process just like man's attempts to gain his right to govern himself over the ages.

The problem is as old as man and youthful rebellion will certainly be with us to baffle us as long as boys and girls are with us.

If we accept this thesis then we must accept the problem in all its many facets. We cannot therefore expect a quick and easy solution.

It is here where the problem becomes philosophical in that to understand these implications we must view them objectively which is difficult for any of us to because of our nearness to them.

Certainly the police officer or the teacher, or the social worker, or the parent cannot be objective about it and there are few of us who are not at least relatives of juveniles and still fewer of us who claim no part of our society.

Knowing this thing then becomes an epistemological problem at least in some aspects, for if we do not recognize or *know* the problem in itself then we shall continue to waste our energies upon the symptoms instead of treating the cause(s). There are comforting signs in this muddle as the stigma of "egghead ism" has begun to give way to a more healthy respect for intellectualism.

The time may come when psychologists and sociologists will have available to them from all nations the kind of data they need to analyze this problem. It will not be an easy task or a quick one.

In the meantime we should give a great deal of philosophic thinking toward this end while taking positive steps to increase police enforcement, to insure legal action against delinquents and parents, to reduce crime breeding conditions, to inform the voter and the taxpayer of the true conditions, and to consign the "do-gooder" groups to a status deserved of them.

Because we are human, there are those of us who understand no language but force. Others of us are sensitive to the least implication of criticism. We all have within us a spirit of adventure and some of us can fulfill that spirit to its utmost while others must satisfy it with daydreams; but we all have it. It is a drive so compelling that it can override conventionality even for some of us in late adulthood and it often does.

This search for adventure, this love of danger must be met in some way. If it cannot find freedom and satisfaction in available conventionality, then it must seek fulfillment elsewhere. This drive backed and encouraged by all the other needs for recognition, and status, and self realization can become explosive. Most of us found that outlet without running afoul of the law even though it sometimes involved experimentation with the Ten Commandments. It is just the same for our children.

The time is long since past for a facing of facts. All the play grounds, recreation halls, clubs, and new housing in the world isn't going to satisfy that desire to break a law now and then, to be a little bit of a vandal, or to seek high and dangerous adventure.

Adolescents have a realistic sense of values in spite of what we say and there is nothing so discouraging to this borderline criminality as a blue uniform on the corner.

We can do all the rehabilitating

that we want. We can reprimand, counsel, force-feed recreation, or simply cry; but let us not forget that a first time easy-out often leads from simply vandalism to crime.

Until man knows a great deal more about man, strict enforcement of law is the most effective answer to a puzzling problem.

If a man in his teens is old enough to don a steel helmet and fight and die in it, then his fellows are old enough to enjoy the full responsibility of citizenship.

The soft and sentimental approach was never of much use and it actually encourages crime in some cases. The overly tough approach is not the answer in all cases either. But if an individual is old enough to carry a weapon, and bold enough to flaunt it, and vicious enough to use it; then he is beyond the soft stage. He is in a stage where a touch of hickory will do more good than all the crying towels.

A society such as ours is reluctant to accept a *get-tough policy* without good reason, but most policemen and a lot of others feel that adequate reason exists now in most communities. This writer proposes facing the problem of juvenile crime in the following manner as a first move. It must be the foundation upon which to build other programs. Without it, a soft program cannot but fail.

Establish a curfew and enforce it.
Stop treating youthful offenders like children.
Question and frisk suspicions persons at every turn.
Book-in the violators—all of them—and let parent or guardian come get them.
Use all necessary force to gain respect for law.

This proposal requires the backing of the public and the courts. It has been tried with success. It works, but it always faces opposition.

There is no magic panacea, no short cut in this business and the problem cannot be solved overnight as many people think it can.

Biochemists and pathologists can analyze body fluids in a laboratory. They can isolate virus and view tissue under a microscope and they can look in, through, and about the sick human body in their search for a cure. The physicist can accelerate sub-atomic particles and measure their energies and manipulate the binding energies of nucleons in order to fashion weapons to kill himself. But the analysis of what makes a youngster tick is vastly more difficult than any other research for we are dealing here with an abstraction that defies analytical description.

Problems associated with analyzing and treating these cases are always difficult ones even for the specialist. The ever changing complexities composing the teen-age personality as it batters itself about during growth are often the cause of radical attitudes, unusual fads, rebellion, and other unconventional behavior.

Now and then a kindly unthinking judge will add to this dilemma by dismissing serious charges against a youngster provided of course that he will enlist in the Army, Navy, Air Force, or Marines. Without a criminal or a police record, the young citizen gets a uniform and promptly faces discipline, regimentation, and duty—perhaps for the first time. He soon becomes an expensive burden to the government as a delinquent-in-uniform not to mention a headache to his commander. This is a deplorable, wasteful, and shameful exercise of jurisprudence. Fortunately this practice of giving away community problems to the military is seen less and less as time goes on.

These youthful personalities often tread that fine line separating the all-out prankster from the felon. Once in trouble, they become difficult problems. As one specialist in the field puts it—"We tend to isolate the fellow who is in trouble as if he were a curiosity of some kind. Treating individuals of this kind is difficult. They always seem to think that the helper has an angle of some kind and it hurts. It is hard to gain (their) confidence."[4]

The problem of youthful criminality will emerge in clearer focus if society will spend more time and interest in gaining the respect of a youngster than in gaining his confidence. For unless he has respect for someone or something he cannot have confidence in anyone or anything.

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4 From an interview with Dr. Philip Isenberg, Mental Health Clinic, United States Army Hospital, Fort Devens, Massachusetts. Reproduced by permission of Dr. Isenberg.

★★★

A Chinese thus describes a trial in the English law courts: "One man is very silent, another talks all the time, and twelve men condemn the man who has not said a word!"

Left—In full MP regalia, Yoh Ok Ki reports for duty.

Right—Yoh doesn't under-estimate the importance of proper hand signals in directing traffic.

Youth in Uniform

KOREAN YOUTH "ADOPTED"

Born of a new tragedy the new found friendship of a 14 year old Korean school-boy and Bayonet Div. MP's recently burst into full view when Yoh Ok Ki became a fledgling policeman, with the 18th Military Police Detachment as Camp Casey.

Events leading to Yoh's "enlistment" began one rainswept morning last March, when he was hurrying to school. Already a few minutes late for the first class at Chok Tong Primary School, about seven miles from the 7th Div. installation, the boy darted across MSR 33, near the Camp.

At the same time, a jeep, driven by an MP returning to Camp after patrolling the area, turned onto the winding road in the village of Nil Mok Ni. The MP-driver saw the boy rushing across the road, but too late! Brakes were applied, the boy screamed, and lay motionless on the roadside.

Five months later, fully recovered, Yoh Ok Ki became an "MP" himself.

"His recovery was miraculous" said Capt. Thomas J. Gorman, CO, 18th MP Det. He received a broken shoulder and internal injuries. For a boy as small as Yoh, there were many doubts as to whether he would fully recover.

After the accident, the boy was taken to the 121st Evacuation Hospital in Ascom. As soon as he was able to walk, Yoh was taken home for further rest. Once a week an MP jeep, from the 18th MP Div., carried him from his home to the hospital for further treatment.

Soon the boy became part of the 18th MP Det. On weekends he would come to Camp Casey to stay with his G.I. friends. He quickly learned the MP hand and arm signals.

"The boy is just like one of us," said one MP. "We look forward to his visits here and we all get a real pleasure out of teaching him our signals."

Yoh's mother, unable to express her gratitude any other way, recently walked over seven miles to give Captain Gorman a dozen eggs.

The boy's parents own a farm in the village of Nil Mok Ni.

In his uniform, replete with pistol belt, holster and helmet liner, Yoh earnestly "directed" traffic outside the main Camp Casey gate, with PFC Ronald H. Kent, of the 18th MP Det.

"I want to become an MP" said the boy after his assignment, "just like all my American friends."

— this article was written by PFC Bernie Weinraub, and contributed to POLICE by Lt. Col. Clifford L. Scott.

How to Winter-Wise Your Driving

Will this winter be the same kind of old-fashioned ripsnorter that hit all midwest and several southeast states last January and tied traffic in knots? This is the question public officials, service station and garage operators and the driving public are asking as Old Man Winter readies his chill blanket and prepares to move front and center of the weather stage for his annual series of performances.

The zero blast that chilled the nation from the Rockies to the Alleghenies in mid-November, blanketing most of this region with snow, and reached its icy fingers into the Gulf states might well have been the tip-off that many states are in for a similar kind of deep freeze, with severe snow and ice conditions, such as we endured last winter. If this proves true, drivers had better prepare themselves and their vehicles now before the really severe onslaughts of winter set in.

SIX TIPS

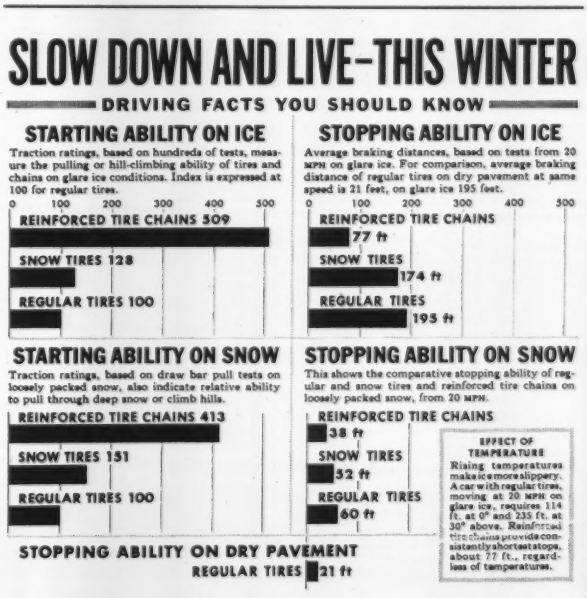
To meet these hazards, the Committee recommends six basic tips for the driver to achieve safe winter operation. Here they are:

1. It's Up to You
   You know that driving conditions are less favorable during the winter. It's up to you to winterize your car, to winterize your driving techniques—and to winterize your determination to avoid accidents.
2. Have Good Tires and Tire Chains
   Have good tires, preferably snow tires, and use reinforced tire chains for more severe conditions. Remember worn tires or worn chains are not as effective. But—with snow tires, or even with the greater help of reinforced tire chains, slower than normal speeds are a MUST on snow and ice.
3. Keep Windshield and Windows Clear
   Be sure that your wiper blades, your heater, and your defroster are working properly. Clean the snow and ice from your windshield and from all windows of your car. Ventilate, to keep the inside of your windows from fogging.
4. Get The "Feel" of The Road
   In order to avoid unintentional sliding or spinning of your wheels, occasionally try your brakes or gently press your accelerator while driving slowly and as traffic and highway conditions permit. Then adjust your speed to road and weather conditions.
5. Follow at A Safe Distance
   Keep well back of the vehicle ahead so that you will have plenty of room to stop. It takes from three to twelve times more distance to stop on snow and ice as it does on dry pavement. You may find it hard to explain why you couldn't stop when the other fellow did.
6. Pump Your Brakes
   Pump your brakes to maintain best steering control when braking on ice or slippery snow. "Pumping" is a fast application and release of the brakes, one, two or more times per second. This gives short intervals of maximum braking separated by short intervals of effective steering while wheels are rolling.

NINE CHECK ITEMS

The foregoing "winter-wises" your personal driving habits. Now, to ready your car, here is a reliable 9-point check list:

1. *Anti-Freeze*—Flush cooling system and put in anti-freeze.


SLOW DOWN AND LIVE—THIS WINTER
DRIVING FACTS YOU SHOULD KNOW
STARTING ABILITY ON ICE
Traction ratings, based on hundreds of tests, measure the pulling or hill-climbing ability of tires and chains on glare ice conditions. Index is expressed at 100 for regular tires.
0 100 200 300 400 500
REINFORCED TIRE CHAINS 509
SNOW TIRES 128
REGULAR TIRES 100
STOPPING ABILITY ON ICE
Average braking distances, based on tests from 20 MPH on glare ice. For comparison, average braking distance of regular tires on dry pavement at same speed is 21 feet, on glare ice 195 feet.
0 100 200 300 400 500
REINFORCED TIRE CHAINS
77 ft
SNOW TIRES
174 ft
REGULAR TIRES
195 ft
STARTING ABILITY ON SNOW
Traction ratings, based on draw bar pull tests on loosely packed snow, also indicate relative ability to pull through deep snow or climb hills.
REINFORCED TIRE CHAINS 413
SNOW TIRES 151
REGULAR TIRES 100
STOPPING ABILITY ON SNOW
This shows the comparative stopping ability of regular and snow tires and reinforced tire chains on loosely packed snow, from 20 MPH.
REINFORCED TIRE CHAINS
38 ft
SNOW TIRES
52 ft
REGULAR TIRES
60 ft
EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE
Rising temperatures make ice more slippery. A car with regular tires, moving at 20 MPH on glare ice, requires 114 ft. at 0° and 235 ft. at 30° above. Reinforced tire chains provide consistently shortest stops, about 77 ft., regardless of temperatures.
STOPPING ABILITY ON DRY PAVEMENT
REGULAR TIRES 21 ft

This chart, provided by the Safe Winter Driving League, illustrate test results by National Safety Council's Committee on Winter Driving Hazards. For each "braking distance" above you must add 22 feet, which is distance traveled during average "reaction time" needed to think and get your foot on brake after seeing a reason to stop. Skidding and reduced visibility are the major added hazards of winter. Can you see and stop in time? Are your windshield wiper blades giving clear, streak-free visibility? Does your defroster work?

TO ALL LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS EVERYWHERE!

The Season's Greetings and Best Wishes for a happy and successful 1961

—from the Editorial Staff and the Publisher.

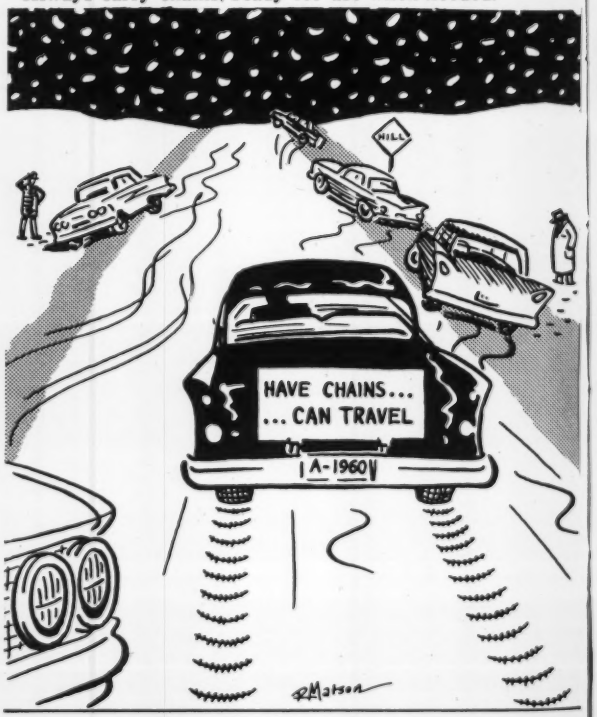
2. *Tires*—Have good treads on front and rear tires. Use snow treads if they help meet your requirements.
3. *Chairs*—Always carry a pair of reinforced tire chains to back up your ability to go.
4. *Windshield Wipers*—Be sure your wiper blades are in good condition and have adequate arm pressure to sweep snow and sleet off rather than slide over it. Wiper arm pressure at 1 ounce per inch of blade length is needed and recommended.
5. *Heater-Defroster*—Make certain the heater-defroster is functioning to keep windshield clear at all times. Know your heater-defroster and how to use it to prevent interior fogging.
6. *Brakes*—Have them adjusted, relined if necessary, and be certain the brakes are free of grease.
7. *Winter Tune-Up*—A good engine tune-up is essential to quick cold-weather starting and helps avoid stalling. Poor starting throwh a heavy drain on the battery at a time when its output is lower due to cold.
8. *Muffler*—A rusty, leaking muffler or exhaust pipe can be a carbon monoxide hazard, particularly if you are stalled in traffic or a blizzard.
9. *Safety Belts*—Install and use safety belts, a must in all types of weather, but especially valuable under hazardous winter driving conditions.

Drivers will find they must overcome the tendency to overpower, oversteer and overbrake when driving on winter's snowy or icy roads. And drivers will find, too, that none of the information given in the preceding paragraphs is mere opinion. Every fact developed has been wrung out of actual experience and hundreds of tests each year for two decades in the dead of winter by men who have a dedicated interest in your safety.

—Courtesy of Safe Winter Driving League

CHAINLESS CHARLIE is a real skid-kid. When severe snow or ice conditions prevail, he "tries" to go as if everything was normal. Usually he gets stuck or has a skid-wreck and ties up properly equipped, careful drivers and thereby delays Highway Department snowplows.

National Safety Council tests show there are times when tire chains are vital to be able to move and stop safely, regardless of what kind of tires you have, but "no brains, no chains Charlie" thinks he's so smart he can get by. Always carry chains, ready for use when needed.



If early November snowfalls and icy blasts are samples, this cartoon by a state safety division official is a timely tip to be ready for winter blizzards yet to come.

Los Angeles Police Department Planning and Research Division

Projects Completed and in Progress 1953 Through 1958

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the fifth in a series of seven reports covering planning and research projects completed or in progress in a number of American Police Departments. The first report appeared in the July-August issue of POLICE.*

ROUTINE PROJECTS AND REPORTS

1. *Annual Review*—a brief statistical summary of reported crimes and arrests during the year compared with the preceding year — 4 pages
2. *Annual Statistical Digest*—a comprehensive report containing tables of crime, arrest and traffic data tabulated by type, location and place of occurrence. — 83 pages
3. *Daily Arrest Bookings*—a compilation of all arrest bookings (including federal and non-criminal) made during the preceding 24-hour period. — 5 pages
4. *Daily Crime and Arrest Summary*—a daily listing of all major crimes and arrests reported to each geographic record unit. Includes a description of suspects and arrestees, M.O., and general description of property taken. — 40 pages
5. *Department Orders, Memoranda, Manual Amendments*—the research, development, publication and distribution of Department procedures. (Over 800 projects completed since 1953.)
6. *Forms Development and Control*—a continuing program of development, improvement or consolidation of existing forms and allied procedures. (Over 1,100 projects completed since 1953.)
7. *Forms Index*—maintenance of complete forms history with both alphabetical and numerical references. (Over 700 in file.)
8. *Manual Revision*—a continuing program of revision of the Department Manual.
9. *Monthly Crime Activities Report*—Part I crimes, attempts, and worthless documents including property loss and recovery, etc., by geographic division. Serves as source of information for other reports. — 12 pages
10. *Monthly F.B.I. Report*—Part I crimes; total reported, unfounded, and cleared by arrest. — 3 pages
11. *Monthly Felony Crime and Clearance Report*—Part I crimes and other selected felonies by type of crime and number of clearances. — 5 pages
12. *Monthly Report*—all crimes and arrests by geographic division of occurrence for the current twelve months and the previous twelve-month period. Juvenile arrests shown by type, division of arrest, division of residence. — 16 pages
13. *Monthly Traffic Accident Summary, National Safety Council.* — 2 pages
14. *Monthly Traffic Report*—traffic accidents by time of day, by cause and by division of occurrence. Citations by type, division issuing and division of occurrence. — 11 pages
15. *Quarterly Report*—selected crimes and attempts by reporting districts. — 79 pages
16. *Semi-Annual Report of Arrests and Dispositions*—all felony arrests for six-month period and dispositions. — 5 pages
17. *Semi-Annual Review*—a brief statistical summary of reported crimes and arrests during the first six months of the year compared with the first six months of the preceding year. — 4 pages
18. *Semi-Monthly Deployment Report*—issued following inter-Department transfer order. — 3 pages
19. *Weekly Administrative Report*—all crimes and arrests for the preceding seven-day period and for the year-to-date compared to the corresponding periods of the previous year. Juvenile activity, traffic accidents and citations are included. — 1 page
20. *Weekly Crime Summary*—a tabular presentation of the various crimes included in the Daily Crime and Arrest Summary. — 4 pages
21. *Work Program Statistics*—selected statistics relating work loads of the preceding, current and forthcoming fiscal years. — 1 page
22. *Weekly Traffic Accident and Enforcement Summary*—traffic accidents, investigations and enforcement by geographic division of occurrence and detail for the month and year-to-date compared with the same periods for the previous year. — 1 page

NON-ROUTINE PROJECTS AND REPORTS

1. Car Laundry and Service Station Survey, 1957. — 8 pages
2. Clerical Workload Study, Divisional, 1957. — 13 pages
3. Clerk Stenos to Geographic Detective Divisions, Study of Justification of Permanent Assignment, 1957. — 20 pages
4. Correspondence, Management, Administrative—A Filing and Control Study, 1956. — 41 pages
5. Court Appearances—Overtime Study, 1957. — 4 pages
6. Crime Analysts of the Wilshire Area, 1958. — 8 pages
7. Crime Analysis with Edge-punched Cards as Statistical Tools, 1954. — 18 pages
8. Crime and Arrest Survey—Bunker Hill Urban Redevelopment Project, 1956. — 18 pages
9. Crime Complaint Comparisons, 1953. — 2 pages
10. Crime, Population and Police Strength—Ten Year Comparison, 1954. — 3 pages
11. Crimes and Arrests Compared to Police Strength, 1950-57. (Chart) — 1 page
12. Crime Survey, Wilshire Division—Burglary and Juvenile Crime Report, 1954. — 5 pages
13. Crime Trend Survey, City of Los Angeles, 1956. — 2 pages
14. Deployment, North Hollywood Detectives, 1958. — 4 pages
15. *Deployment Survey—Operation Crime Repression, 1958.
16. Deputy Auxiliary Police Program—Financial Status, 1953. — 2 pages
17. Detective Audit System, Survey of Proposals, 1955. — 21 pages

18. Detective Investigation, Arraignment of Felony Prisoners—Time Study, 1957. 1 page
19. Detective Investigation, Complaint and Warrant Process—Time Study, 1957. 6 pages
20. Detention and Rehabilitation Functions of LAPD—Study of Costs, 1958. 10 pages
21. Divisional Annual Report, 1955, 1956, 1957 and 1958. 21 pages
22. Fees to be Charged for Services Rendered by Scientific Investigation Division—Study and Schedule, 1956. 2 pages
23. Felony Warrant List—Study of Proposal to Initiate, 1953. 10 pages
24. Files Survey, Records and Identification Division, 1957. 16 pages
25. Fingerprint Cards, Mechanical Reproduction by Xerography—Survey, 1956. 8 pages
26. Flexowriters at the Main Jail for Preparation of Detention and Misdemeanor Court Records —Survey to Justify Use, 1958. 7 pages
27. Homicides Involving Police Officers—Recapitulation, 1943-56. 21 pages
28. Information Searches—Manual and/or Machine Checks for Specific Information. (Over 11,000 Departmental Requests Completed since 1953.)
29. *Juvenile Investigation—Policing Needs.
30. *Juvenile Patrol—Policing Needs.
31. Licenses, City, Revision of Issuance Procedures—Police Commission Survey, 1954. 9 pages
32. Modus Operandi Bulletins, Special. (Over 60 Bulletins Prepared and Over 175,000 Copies Disseminated since 1953.)
33. Modus Operandi Searches (IBM), Machine Run Checks of M.O. Files. (Over 2,500 Individual Runs since 1953.)
34. Motor Transport Division, Management Plan for a Cost Accounting System, 1957. 53 pages
35. Narcotic Addicts—Compilation of Crimes and Related Information, 1956. 3 pages
36. Narcotic Problem, Local, 1955. 12 pages
37. Narcotic Survey to Establish Correlation Between Increase in Narcotic Offenses and Increase in Other Selected Crimes, 1950-58. 4 pages
38. Office Equipment, Name-Plate Survey, 1954. 8 pages
39. Office Layout Survey for Police Buildings, 1954. 22 pages
40. Part I and Narcotics Offenses, 5-year Comparison, 1954. 3 pages
41. Patrol Activities in the Valley Division—Survey, 1956. 40 pages
42. Patrol Officer, Uniformed, A Workload Study, 1953. 54 pages
43. Personnel—Inactive Records Survey, 1955. 9 pages
44. Personnel Strength of Council-Controlled City Departments, Sworn and Civilian, 1950-51 and 1957-58 (Chart) 1 page
45. Personnel (Sworn) Staffing Needs for Main Jail and Central Jail, 1956. 36 pages
46. Police Academy Survey, Personnel Deployment, 1955. 80 pages
47. Police Activities Within Bunker Hill Redevelopment Area, 1958. 8 pages
48. Police Activities Within Temple Urban Renewal Project Area, 1958. 9 pages
49. Police Costs and Assessed Valuation of Property per Capita by Geographic Division, 1957-58. 9 pages
50. Police Dog Survey—Use of Trained Dogs in Police Patrol, 1955. 27 pages
51. *Police Information Bulletins—Survey to Increase Utilization of Daily Bulletins and Reduce Costs, 1958.
52. Police Needs — Physical Plant Requirements, 1958. 113 pages
53. *Police Needs, Socio-Economic Conditions as a Means of Determining, 1958.
54. Police Officers Necessary for Basic Police Needs, Survey, 1956. 66 pages
55. Police Officers Replaced by Civilian Personnel, Special Report, 1950-58. 2 pages
56. Police Personnel Deployment in Hollenbeck Area—Hollenbeck Police Division, 1954. 20 pages
57. Police Personnel Strength and Hours Worked, 1954-57. 2 pages
58. *Police Reports, Methods of Reducing Clerical Man-Hours, 1958.
59. Police Strength and Police Work Loads, 1950-57. 7 pages
60. Policing Problem and Non-Problem Areas—Comparative Costs. 14 pages
61. Population and Crime Survey, 1953-57. 3 pages
62. Population and Police Personnel Data—Comparisons for the Twenty Largest U. S. Cities, 1955. 2 pages
63. Population and Police Personnel Data for the Twenty Largest U. S. Cities, 1954. 2 pages
64. Population Study by Division and Reporting District, 1956. 81 pages
65. Pre-Numbered Form Sets, Survey of Comparative Costs, 1958. 26 pages
66. Property Section, Procedural Survey, 1954. 8 pages
67. Property Security Measures Within Geographical Divisions—Standardization, 1958. 11 pages
68. Prostitution Recividism—Vice Activities Survey, 1957. 7 pages
69. Psychopathic Procedures, Hospital Division Survey, 1955. 15 pages
70. Recruitment Program — Recommendations to City Council, 1958. 4 pages
71. Rehabilitation Center and Rehabilitation Division, Job Description Survey, 1954. 102 pages
72. Rehabilitation Center, Sale to County of Los Angeles, 1957. 4 pages
73. San Fernando Valley With Remainder of Los Angeles—Statistical Comparison, 1948-57. 1 page
74. Sick-Leave Survey, 1954. 30 pages
75. "Skid-Row"—Special Study, 1955. 5 pages
76. Special Events Policing Study of Overtime Costs and Man-Hours Expended, 1957. 9 pages
77. Statistics Unit Operations—Preparation of Flow Charts, 1958. 25 pages
78. *Statistics Unit's Publication Procedures—Survey, 1958.
79. Street Miles Survey as an Aid to Deployment, 1956. 15 pages
80. Telephonic Recording of Field Reports for Valley Division—Pilot Study, 1956. 5 pages
81. Telephonic Recording System for Juvenile Division—Pilot Study, 1956. 5 pages
82. Time and Activity Survey—Patrol, Traffic and Juvenile, 1953. 108 pages
83. Vehicle Impound Inventory Survey—Combining Inventory with Release Authorization and Notice of Sale for Storage Costs, 1954. 4 pages
84. *Vehicles (Department), Cost Analysis and Performance Study, 1958.
85. Venice Police Division — Decentralization of Westchester Area, Survey, 1954. 22 pages

* Indicates Project in Progress. ★★★

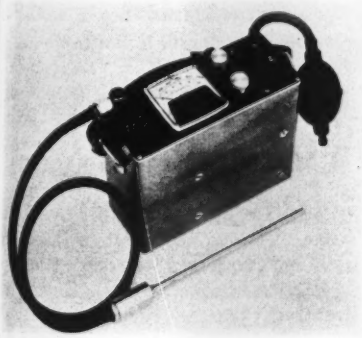
NEWS and ANNOUNCEMENTS

NEW INSTRUMENT FOR ARSON INVESTIGATION

A new instrument, the Model SS, has just been announced by Johnson-Williams, Inc.—pioneers in the field of combustible gas detectors.

The SS is some twelve times as sensitive to vapors as the ordinary combustible gas indicator. An important application is the use of this instrument in investigating suspected arson cases. As an example, the SS has been used to establish the fact that kerosene or other flammable liquid was used to set a fire. The instrument detected a minute amount of vapor in the charred timbers as much as five days following the fire.

The Model SS is portable and has a rechargeable nickel-cadmium battery that lasts indefinitely. The instrument comes complete with hose and probe for ease in taking samples.



INDIANAPOLIS RECEIVES NEW COLT AR-15

Colt's Patent Fire Arms Manufacturing Company, Inc., announced today that the Indianapolis Police Department holds the distinction of being the first police department in the United States to equip itself with the new Colt AR-15. Heralded as the most modern and versatile police shoulder weapon of our time, the announcement came on the heels of receipt of the new weapons by Chief Robert E. Reily. The men in the department will be trained with the new weapon and it will be integrated into the department's secondary arsenal as soon as possible.

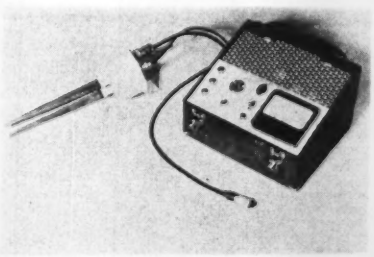
The Colt AR-15 will replace three guns now used by law enforcement agencies. They are the high power rifle, the tear gas gun, and the machine gun.

It is expected that many other police departments across the country will very soon follow the lead of this "first" by the Indianapolis Police Department. The Colt Company indicated that inquiries are being received daily and that the first shipment of guns was sent to Indianapolis because of Chief Reilly's early interest in the availability of this new weapon.

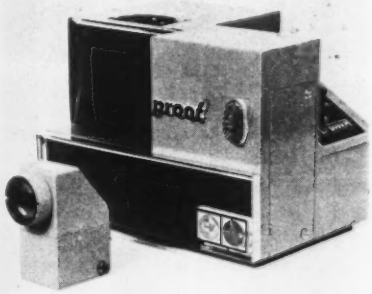
NEW TRAFFIC CONTROL RADAR ANNOUNCED

The Astrotherm Corp., 1625 Bellfontaine, Indianapolis, Indiana has announced the introduction of two new models of one man, one car, traffic control radar.

The premium model of the two, the "Model 600 Patrolmaster," features an extremely narrow beam combined with very long range. This pencil-like beam configuration makes it possible—for the first time in any traffic radar—to actually pick out one lane, at maximum range, on multi-lane highways and freeways.



In addition, the "600 Patrolmaster" has a built-in electronic hold circuit which holds the violators top speed for easy reading and/or proof of the violation. The meter is on a long cable so that the operator can stop cars and read the meter at the same time.



NEW IDENTIFICATION TOOL

Developed by Chance-Vaught Aircraft, Inc., Dallas, Texas, this instrument is based on an optical technique which eliminates the use of ink in recording fingerprints. Prints are reported to be so clear that the pore structure of the ridge pattern is clearly displayed. It is designed for use by business establishments in connection with the cashing of checks or credit transactions. It can also be used by banks for positive identification of depositors and holders of safe deposit boxes and by hospitals for footprinting or fingerprinting of new born babies.

SPRINGFIELD SPORTER STOCKS NOW AVAILABLE

Springfield rifle owners will be interested in the line of sporter stocks recently introduced by Kodiak Manufacturing Company.

The Kodiak line features fully finished Springfield sporter walnut stocks, for only $17.95.

Handsomest member of the line is a Monte Carlo stock with cheek-piece and hand-checkered pistol grip and forearm.

For further information write: Kodiak Mfg. Co., Box 185, North Haven, Conn.

CRIMINOLOGISTS TO HOLD ANNUAL MEETING

The annual joint meeting of the American Society of Criminology and the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel in New York City, on Monday and Tuesday, December 26th and 27th.

On Tuesday evening, December 27th, the Annual Award of the American Criminological Society will be presented to Dr. Thorsten Sellin of the University of Pennsylvania, President of the International Criminological Society; and August Vollmer Research Awards will be presented to Dr. Paul Bohannan of Northwestern University and Dr. M. E. Wolfgang of the University of Pennsylvania.

Donal E. J. MacNamara, Dean, New York Institute of Criminology, is Conference General Chairman. Further information and programs may be obtained by writing: New York Institute of Criminology, 115-117 West 42nd Street, New York 36, New York.

THIRTY YEARS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT

Featuring as speakers three well known authorities in the field, David G. Monroe, Frederick G. Tryhorn and James W. Osterburg, Indiana University, on September 30th, staged an over-view of significant developments in law enforcement administration during the past thirty years. Professor Monroe presented a paper on *Study Commissions—Constitutional Guarantees—And the Law Enforcement Process.*

Professor Monroe is Visiting Professor of Police Administration at Indiana University from the University of North Carolina, Department of Political Science.

The subject of Dr. Tryhorn's paper was *The Rise of Scientific Evidence in English Jurisprudence.* He is the Forensic Science Advisor to the British Home Office.

Professor Osterburg spoke on *Interdisciplinary Contributions to Criminal Investigation.* He is an Associate Professor of Police Administration at Indiana University.

Publishers: File two copies of this Form with your postmaster.

STATEMENT REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF AUGUST 24, 1912, AS AMENDED BY THE ACTS OF MARCH 3, 1933, JULY 2, 1946 AND JUNE 11, 1960 (74 STAT. 208) SHOWING THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, AND CIRCULATION OF

- - - - POLICE - - - - (Insert name and title of publication) published bi-monthly (State exact frequency of issue)

at Springfield, Illinois (Name of post office and State where publication has second-class entry) for year ending Aug. 31, 1961

1. The names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are:

	Name	Address
Publisher	Charles C Thomas, Publisher	301-327 E. Lawrence Ave., Springfield, Ill.
Editor	V.A.Leonard, Prof. Police Adm. - Washington State Univ., Pullman, Wash.	
Managing editor	V. A. Leonard (as above)	
Business manager	Charles C Thomas, Publisher	

2. The owner is: (If owned by a corporation, its name and address must be stated and also immediately thereunder the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding 1 percent or more of total amount of stock. If not owned by a corporation, the names and addresses of the individual owners must be given. If owned by a partnership or other unincorporated firm, its name and address, as well as that of each individual member, must be given.)

Name	Address
Charles C Thomas, Publisher	301-327 E. Lawrence Ave., Springfield, Ill.
Payne E. L. Thomas	Island Hay Lane, Lake Springfield, Springfield, Ill.
Charles C Thomas	Maryes Hill, Chatham, Illinois
W. P. Thomas	" " " "

3. The known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding 1 percent or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are: (If there are none, so state.)

Name	Address
none —	

4. Paragraphs 2 and 3 include, in cases where the stockholder or security holder appears upon the books of the company as trustee or in any other fiduciary relation, the name of the person or corporation for whom such trustee is acting; also the statements in the two paragraphs show the affiant's full knowledge and belief as to the circumstances and conditions under which stockholders and security holders who do not appear upon the books of the company as trustees, hold stock and securities in a capacity other than that of a bona fide owner.

5. The average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the 12 months preceding the date shown above was: (This information is required by the act of June 11, 1960 to be included in all statements regardless of frequency of issue.) 3500

CHARLES C THOMAS, PUBLISHER

Payne E. L. Thomas Partner

(Signature of editor, publisher, business manager, or owner)

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 23rd day of September, 1960

[SEAL]

(My commission expires ....., 19..)

POD Form 3526 (July 1960)

NORTHWESTERN INITIATES NEW GRADUATE PROGRAM

A graduate study program in criminal law—created to improve criminal justice through development and training of outstanding attorneys—will be initiated the 1961-62 academic year at the Northwestern University law school, Chicago.

Six fellowships for a year's study will be made available through a grant to Northwestern by the Ford Foundation, according to John Ritchie, law school dean, and Claude R. Sowle, assistant professor who will administer the special program.

Four of the fellowships are to be awarded to graduates of U. S. law schools, and two to graduates of foreign law schools, they said.

Other primary aims of the new program are the training of law graduates interested chiefly in teaching and writing in the field of criminal law and administration, and as additional study for person planning careers in other areas of administration of criminal justice.

Graduate students in the program will be required to complete one academic year of school residence and a minimum devoted to criminal law and procedure and related topics, and of fifteen semester hours in formal courses or seminars—half produce a manuscript suitable for publication in one of the Northwestern law school publications.

Generally, in selecting the Ford fellowship award winners, the applicant's scholastic record in law school, his announced interest in the field of criminal law, and his plans for the future will be under close consideration.

Sowle urged that applications for the six fellowship awards be submitted no later than January 1, 1961, to his Northwestern University office at 357 E. Chicago Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

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